LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.



COMPILED AND EDITED BY

G. A. GRIERSON, C.I.E., Pa.D., D.Litt., I.C.S. (Retd.).



VOL. IV.
MUNDĀ AND DRAVIDIAN
LANGUAGES.

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Vol. IV.

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LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATION ADOPTED.

A.—For the Dēva-nāgarī alphabet, and others related to it—

इ i, ई i, उ u, ऊ ū, ऋ ri, प e, ए ē, ऐ ai, ओ o, ओ ō, औ au. ਬ gha च cha क chha ज ja भा iha जña ग ga 雪 na ढ dha त ta 3 tha ड da z ta ल la a va or wa ब ba H bha स ma य yaफ pha T pa æ lha. ढ rha x la€ ra v sha स इव ਢ ha भ śa

Visarga (:) is represented by h, thus ক্ষমম: kramaśah. Anuswāra (') is represented by m, thus বিহু simh, ব্য vamś. In Bengali and some other languages it is pronounced ng, and is then written ng; thus বংশ bangśa. Anunāsika or Chandra-bindu is represented by the sign over the letter nasalized, thus মঁ mẽ.

B.—For the Arabic alphabet, as adapted to Hindostānī—

Tanwin is represented by n, thus $i_{j,j}$ fauran. Alif-i magsūra is represented by \bar{a} ;—thus, \dot{a} $\dot{a$

In the Arabic character, a final silent h is not transliterated,—thus view banda.

When pronounced, it is written,—thus, عُلناه gunāh.

Vowels when not pronounced at the end of a word, are not written in transliteration. Thus, जन ban, not bana. When not pronounced in the middle of a word or only slightly pronounced in the middle or at the end of a word, they are written in small characters above the line. Thus (Hindī) देखता dēkhtā, pronounced dēkhtā; (Kāśmīrī) चूह के कि के; केह कि के; कर्ष, pronounced kor; (Bihārī) देखिय dēkhath.

C.—Special letters peculiar to special languages will be dealt with under the head of the languages concerned. In the meantime the following more important instances may be noted:—

(a) The ts sound found in Marāṭhī (ব), Puṣḥṭō (২), Kāśmīrī (ৣ, ব), Tibetan (ঠ), and elsewhere, is represented by ts. So, the aspirate of that sound

is represented by tsh.

(b) The dz sound found in Marāthī (෧), Pushtō (෫), and Tibetan (౾) is represented by dz, and its aspirate by dzh.

(c) Kāśmīrī ্ (ন) is represented by ñ.

- (d) Sindhī , Western Panjābī (and elsewhere on the N.-W. Frontier) ;, and Puṣḥtō i or are represented by n.
- (e) The following are letters peculiar to Pushtō:—

 \$\tip t\$ or \$\dz\$, according to pronunciation; \$\dz\$, \$\langle t\$; \$\langle t\$ or \$\dz\$, according to pronunciation; \$\langle d\$; \$\langle t\$ is or \$\langle t\$, according to pronunciation; \$\langle t\$ or \$\langle t\$.

D.—Certain sounds, which are not provided for above, occur in transcribing languages which have no alphabet, or in writing phonetically (as distinct from transliterating) languages (such as Bengali) whose spelling does not represent the spoken sounds. The principal of these are the following:—

a, represents the sound of the a in all.

```
      a,
      " a in hat.

      e,
      " e in met.

      o,
      " o in hot.

      e,
      " é in the French était.

      o,
      " o in the first o in promote.

      ö,
      " ö in the German schön.

      ü,
      " ü in the " mühe.

      th,
      " th in think.

      dh,
      " th in this.
```

The semi-consonants peculiar to the Munda languages are indicated by an apostrophe. Thus k', t', p', and so on.

E.—When it is necessary to mark an accented syllable, the acute accent is used. Thus in (Khōwār) ássistai, he was, the acute accent shows that the accent falls on the first, and not, as might be expected, on the second syllable.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

I am indebted to Dr. Sten Konow of Christiania, Norway, for the preparation of this volume. The proofs of the Dravidian section have been kindly examined by Mr. V. Ve nkayya, Government Epigraphist, Madras. As Editor of the series of volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India, I am responsible for all statements contained in it.

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.

INTRODUCTION.

About one-fifth of the total population of India speak languages belonging to the Mundā and Dravidian families. These forms of speech have been called by anthropologists the languages of the Dravida race.

If we exclude the north-eastern districts from consideration, the population of the Indian peninsula can be said to represent two distinct anthropological types—the Aryan and the Dravidian. The latter has been described as follows by Mr. Risley:—

'In the Dravidian type the form of the head usually inclines to be dolichocephalic, but all other characters present a marked contrast to the Aryan. The nose is thick and broad, and the formula expressing its proportionate dimensions is higher than in any known race, except the Negro. The facial angle is comparatively low; the lips are thick; the face wide and fleshy; the features coarse and irregular. The average stature ranges in a long series of tribes from 156.2 to 162.1 centimetres; the figure is squat, and the limbs sturdy. The colour of the skin varies from very dark brown to a shade closely approaching black . . . The typical Dravidian . . . has a nose as broad in proportion to its length as the Negro.'

The hair is curly, and in this respect the Dravidians differ from the Australians, with whom they agree in several other characteristics.

The Dravidian race is not found outside India. It has already been remarked that the Australians share many of the characteristics of the Dravidians. Anthropologists, nevertheless, consider them to be a distinct race. The various Mon-Khmer tribes and the Sakeis of Malacca agree with the Dravidians in having a dolichocephalic head, a dark colour of the skin, and curly hair. They are not, however, considered to be identical with them.

Archæologists are of opinion that the various stone implements which are found from Chota Nagpur on the west to the Malayan peninsula on the east are often so similar in kind that they appear to be the work of one and the same race. Attention has also been drawn to analogous customs found all over the same area, and to other coincidences. It will be mentioned later on that philological reasons can likewise be adduced to support the supposition of a common substratum in the population of parts of Nearer India, Farther India, and elsewhere. We cannot decide whether the Dravidian race is directly descended from that old substratum. At all events, the race is commonly considered to be that of the aborigines of India, or, at least, of Southern India.

The various groups into which anthropology divides men are nowhere pure and unmixed. There are also within the Dravidian race great fluctuations in the shape of the skull, the form of the nose, the darkness of the skin, and so forth. It seems therefore necessary to conclude that, in the course of time, numerous racial crossings have taken place.

The probability of such a conclusion is enhanced by a consideration of the languages spoken by the Dravidian race. According to the eminent German philologist and ethnologist Friedrich Müller, they are the Mundā dialects, Singhalese, and the Dravidian languages proper. Müller's classification of the languages of the world is based on principles which differ widely from those adopted by former writers on the subject, and it will be necessary to give a short explanation of his methods in order to ascertain how much importance he himself would attach to the fact that several languages of different origin are, in his system, classed together within one and the same group.

According to Müller, man can only have developed a real language after having split up into races, and the various languages in actual use must therefore be derived from different racial bases. Nay, it seems even necessary to assume that the individual race had often split up into further sub-divisions before developing a language of its own. All the languages of one race are not, therefore, necessarily derived from the same original.

Among the languages of the Dravida race Singhalese occupies a position of its own and does not appear to have anything to do with the rest. It is an Aryan dialect and has been brought to Ceylon from India at a very early period. There seem to be traces of a non-Aryan substratum, under the Aryan superstructure, but we are not as yet in a position to judge with certainty as to the nature of this substratum.

With regard to the remaining languages of the race, opinion has been divided, some scholars thinking it possible to derive the Mundā and Dravidian forms of speech from the same original, and others holding that they have nothing to do with each other. The latter opinion seems to be commonly held by scholars in Europe.

The Rev. F. Hahn, on the other hand, in his Kurukh Grammar, Calcutta, 1900, pp. 98 and ff., maintains that there is a strong Dravidian element in Mundārī grammar. Mundārī is a typical Mundā language, and the view advocated by Mr. Hahn accordingly leads up to the suggestion of a connexion between the Mundā and Dravidian forms of speech, i.e., among all the principal languages of the Dravidian race. This theory is a priori very probable. An examination of Mr. Hahn's arguments will, however, show that it cannot be upheld.¹

He commences by giving a list of words which are common to the Mundā Mundārī and to the Dravidian Kurukh. He does not attach much importance to such cases of coincidence in vocabulary, and rightly so. In the first place, Kurukh has largely borrowed from Mundārī, and in the second place, it is only to be expected that many words should be common to the two families. Even if we assume that the Dravidian race of the present day consists of two originally different elements, the Mundās and the Dravidas, it must have been formed or rather must have developed in such a way that the two original races were mixed together. The result of such a mixture must inevitably be that the languages of both races influenced each other in vocabulary. Moreover, the list published

¹ My non-acceptance of Mr. Hahn's conclusions must not be taken as suggesting that I have anything but the greatest respect for the modesty and learning displayed in his Kurukh Grammar. Indeed, it is the fact that these conclusions are supported by his authority that has compelled me to enter into details in giving my reasons for differing from him. Otherwise the question could have been dismissed in a few words.

by Mr. Hahn contains several Aryan loan-words and also some words where the analogy is only apparent. Compare Mundārī $e\dot{n}g\ddot{a}$, mother, but Kurukh $i\dot{n}g$ - $y\ddot{o}$, my-mother, in which the word $i\dot{n}g$ means 'my.'

I therefore pass by the asserted correspondence in vocabulary. It seems to me that a thorough comparison of Mundā and Dravidian vocabulary will show that the common element is unimportant.

Mr. Hahn further mentions some points where he finds a correspondence between Munda and Dravidian grammar. It will be necessary to extend the investigation to other features also, in order to show the true relationship existing between the two families. Mr. Hahn's arguments can then be referred to in their proper place.

Phonology.—The most striking feature of Mundā phonology is the existence of the so-called semi-consonants. There is nothing corresponding to these in Dravidian languages. On the other hand, the interchange between soft and hard consonants in Dravidian is not a feature of the Mundā forms of speech.

Formation of words.—The Munda languages like the Dravidian ones make use of suffixes. The same is, however, the case in all Indian, and in many other, languages, and it is, moreover, possible or even probable that the use of suffixes in Munda is largely due to the influence of Dravidian or Aryan forms of speech. The Dravidian languages have nothing corresponding to the Munda infixes.

Nouns.—Dravidian nouns are of two kinds, viz., those that denote rational beings, and those that denote irrational beings, respectively. The two classes differ in the formation of the plural, and also in other respects. The state of affairs in Muṇḍā is quite different. Here we find the difference to be between animate and inanimate nouns, quite another principle of classification, pervading the whole grammatical system. Both classes, moreover, denote their plural in the same way. Further, Dravidian languages often have different forms for the masculine and feminine singular of nouns denoting rational beings, while the Muṇḍās make no difference whatever.

Dravidian languages have two numbers, the singular and the plural. The Mundā dialects have three.

The formation of cases is quite different in the two families. The Dravidian languages have a regular dative and an accusative, while the cases of the direct and indirect object are incorporated in the verb in Muṇḍā. The suffix $k\bar{e}$, which is used to denote the direct and the indirect object in some mixed dialects of Muṇḍārī, is a foreign element. In the face of such facts the comparison of the Kurukh ablative suffix $t\bar{\imath}$ with Muṇḍārī $t\bar{e}$, which is not a real ablative suffix, is of no avail, even if the Kurukh $t\bar{\imath}$, $nt\bar{\imath}$, should prove to be different in its origin from Tamil inru, Kanarese indu, Tulu edd.

In this connexion it should also be noted that the Munda languages do not possess anything corresponding to the Dravidian oblique base.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are of the same kind in both families. The same is, however, the case in almost all agglutinative languages.

Numerals.—No connexion whatever can be traced between the Munda and Dravidian numerals. Moreover the principles prevailing in the formation of higher

¹ Yō mother, is a very common word in many languages. It also occurs in Santālī under the form of ayō. Like so many other terms of relationship it is a nursery word and cannot be adduced as a proof of relationship between such languages as possess it.

numbers are different in the two families. The Dravidas count in tens, the Mundas in twenties.

Pronouns.—The pronoun $i\tilde{n}$, $i\dot{n}g$, I, in Mundā dialects has been compared by Mr. Hahn with the Kurukh $\bar{e}n$, oblique $e\dot{n}g$. It will, however, be shown in the introduction to the Dravidian family that the base of the Dravidian word for 'I' is probably \bar{e} , while the essential part of the Mundā pronoun is \tilde{n} or \dot{n} .

Mr. Hahn further remarks that both families have different forms for the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person according to whether the party addressed is included or not. It will be pointed out in the introduction to the Dravidian family that it is very questionable whether this is originally a feature of the Dravidian forms of speech. Moreover, the use of two different forms for 'we' occurs in other families which have nothing to do with the Muṇḍās and Dravidas, e.g., in the Nuba languages, the Algonquin languages, etc.

Mr. Hahn further compares Kurukh $\bar{e}k\bar{a}$, who? with Muṇḍārī oko. But the base of \bar{e} - $k\bar{a}$ is \bar{e} or $\bar{\imath}$, as is clearly shown by other Dravidian forms of speech.

No conclusion whatever can be drawn from the absence of a relative pronoun in both families. The same is, as is well known, the case in numerous languages all over the world.

Verbs.—Every trace of analogy between the Muṇḍā and Dravidian families disappears when we proceed to deal with the verbs. Mr. Hahn compares some suffixes in Kurukh and Muṇḍārī. It is not necessary to show in detail that his comparisons will not stand a close examination. I shall only take one typical instance. He compares the Muṇḍārī suffix of the simple past tense passive jan, which corresponds to Santālī en, with Kurukh jan, which is the termination of the first person singular feminine of such verbs as end in n. The j of the Kurukh tense is softened from ch, as is clearly shown by connected dialects. The j of Muṇḍārī jan, on the other hand, is derived from y in yan = Santālī en. The final n of Kurukh jan is the personal termination of the first person singular, and is dropped in other persons; the n of Muṇḍārī jan is the sign of the passive and runs through all persons.

The rest of Mr. Hahn's comparisons are of the same kind and can safely be left out of consideration.

On the other hand, the whole conjugational system is quite different in the Dravidian and in Muṇḍā languages. The Dravidian system is very simple, only comprising two or three tenses; in Muṇḍā we find an almost bewildering maze of conjugational forms. The Dravidian verb can be characterized as a noun of agency; the Muṇḍā verb is an indefinite form which may be used at will as a noun, an adjective, or as a verb. The most characteristic features of the Muṇḍā verb, the categorical α and the incorporation of the direct and the indirect object in the verb, are in absolute discord with Dravidian principles. The Muṇḍā languages, on the other hand, do not possess anything corresponding to the Dravidian negative conjugation.

It is not necessary to go further into detail. The two families only agree in such points as are common to most agglutinative languages, and there is no philological reason for deriving them from the same original.

On the other hand, the Mundas and the Dravidas belong to the same ethnic stock. It has, however, already been remarked that the physical History. type is not uniform throughout. If we are allowed to infer from this fact that the Dravidian race is a mixed one and consists of more than one element, the philological facts just drawn attention to seem to show that the chief components of the actual race are the Mundas on the one hand and the Dravidas on the other. The Mundas are everywhere found in the hills and jungles, i.e. in surroundings in which we might reasonably expect to find the remnants of aboriginal races. We cannot, however, now decide if the dialects spoken by them at the present day are derived from the language of those aborigines, and there are, moreover, no traces of their having at any time been settled in the south. With regard to the Dravidas, some authorities believe that they arrived in India from the south, while others suppose them to have entered it from the north-west where a Dravidian language is still spoken by the Brāhūīs of Baluchistan. The Brāhūis do not belong to the Dravidian race, but are anthropologically Eranians, i.e. they have merged into the race of their neighbours. It is possible that the same is the case with the Dravidian tribes of the south wherever they came from, but anthropology only tells us that the Dravidian race comprises Mundas and Dravidas, and we have no information to show that the Dravidas are not the aboriginal inhabitants of the south.

Philology does not tell us much about the question. It will be shown later on that the Mundā languages agree in so many points with various forms of speech in Farther India, the Malay peninsula, and the Nicobars, that there must be some connexion between them all. The Dravidian languages, on the contrary, form an isolated group. There are no traces of connected forms of speech in the surrounding countries. Comparative philologists agree that the Mundā languages, Khassi, Mōn-Khmēr, Nancowry, and the speech of the aboriginal races of the Malay peninsula contain a common substratum, which cannot be anything else than the language of an old race which was once settled in all those countries. No traces of that common stock can be shown to exist in the Dravidian forms of speech, and from a philological point of view, it therefore seems probable that the Dravidian languages are derived from the speech of an aboriginal Dravidian population of Southern India, while the Dravidian race at some remote period has received an admixture of tribes belonging to the same stock as the Mōn-Khmērs of Farther India.

The question of the origin and the old distribution of the Dravidian race cannot, however, be solved by the philologist. It is a subject which properly belongs to the domain of anthropology, and of anthropology alone. The denomination of the race is that given by anthropologists, and from the point of view of the philologist it is just as unsuitable as, if not more unsuitable than, the name Aryan which is used by some to denote the old people whose language is the origin of the various Indo-European tongues. For our present purpose it is sufficient to state that the languages of the Mundas and the Dravidas are not connected but form two quite independent families. They will accordingly be described as such, and I now proceed to give a more detailed account of the Munda family.

PART I.

MUNDA FAMILY.

INTRODUCTION.

The Munda family is the least numerous of the four linguistic families which divide among themselves the bulk of the population of India. The number of speakers is only about three millions.

The Munda family has been known under various names. Hodgson classed the languages in question under the head of Tamulian. Name of the family. Santālī, Bhumij, Kurukh, and Mundārī are, according to him, 'dialects of the great Kól language.' The word Kol or Kolh is a title applied by Hindus to the Hos, Mundaris, and Oraos, and sometimes also to other tribes of the Munda stock. Among the Santals the corresponding word katha is used to denote a tribe of iron smelters in the Sonthal Parganas and neighbourhood. It is probably connected with caste names such as Kōlī, but we do not know anything really certain about the original meaning of the word. Kola occurs as the name of a warrior caste in the Hariyamśa. The word kōla in Sanskrit also means 'pig,' and some authorities hold that this word has been used by the Aryans as a term of abuse in order to denote the aboriginal tribes. According to others 'Kol' is the same word as the Santālī $h\hat{a}r$, a man. This word is used under various forms such as har, hara, ho, and koro by most Munda tribes in order to denote themselves. The change of r to l is familiar and does not give rise to any difficulty. It is even possible that the Aryans who heard the word $h\hat{a}r$ or $k\bar{o}r$ confounded it with their own word kola, a pig. The Santālī form kālhā must in that case have been borrowed back again from the Aryans.

The name Kol has the disadvantage that it is not used in India to denote all the various tribes of the Mundā family. On the other hand, it is also applied to the Orāðs who speak a Dravidian dialect. It is therefore apt to be misunderstood. As has already been remarked, Hodgson used the name to denote Hō, Santālī, Bhumij, Kurukh, and Mundārī. He was followed by Logan, who, however, excluded Kurukh. Logan also followed Hodgson in considering the Mundā languages as a Dravidian group, which he called North Dravidian. Both he and Hodgson, accordingly, laboured under the illusion that the languages of Mundās and the Dravidas were derived from the same original.

The late Professor Max Müller was the first to distinguish between the Mundā and Dravidian families. He says:—

'I can see indeed many coincidences between Uraon, Rajmahali, and Gondi on one side, and Sinhbhum (i.e. Hō), Sontal, Bhumij, and Mundala words on the other, but none whatever between these two classes. I, therefore, suppose that in the dialects of the last four tribes, we have traces of a language spoken in India before the Tamulian conquest . . . The race by which these dialects are used may have merged into the Tamulic in places where both have been living together for some time. Both are, therefore,

promiscuously called Koles. But historically as well as physiologically there is sufficient evidence to show that two different races, the Tamulic and an earlier race, came in contact in these regions, whither both fled before the approach of a new civilisation . . . These people called themselves "Munda," which, as an old ethnic name, I have adopted for the common appellation of the aboriginal Koles.'

The designation of the family as the 'Mundā family' is thus due to Max Müller, and it has been retained in this Survey because it is that originally given by the scholar who first clearly distinguished the family from the Dravidian forms of speech, and because other names which have been proposed are objectionable for other reasons. It is not, however, a very appropriate denomination. The word Mundā is used by foreigners to designate the Mundās of the Ranchi district, i.e. only a section of the whole race. In Mundārī it denotes the village chief and is also used as an honorific designation of landed proprietors, much in the same way as Māñjhī in Santālī. Mundā therefore properly only applies to that section of the tribe who speak the Mundārī language, and its use as a common designation of the whole family is only a conventional one.

The denomination Munda was not long allowed to stand unchallenged. Sir George Campbell in 1866 proposed to call the family Kolarian. He was of opinion that Kol had an older form Kolar which he thought to be identical with Kanarese *kallar*, thieves. There is absolutely no foundation for this supposition. Moreover, the name Kolarian is objectionable as seeming to suggest a connexion with Aryan which does not exist.

The name Kolarian has, however, in spite of such disadvantages become very widely used. Mr. Skrefsrud, and after him Professor Thomsen of Copenhagen, have brought a new name into the field, viz. Kherwarian or Kharwarian. Kherwar or Kharwar is according to Santālī tradition, the name given to the old tribe from which Santāls, Hōs, Muṇḍās, Bhumij, and so forth are descended. So far as I can see it includes the bulk of the family, and has great advantages as compared with other titles. It is not, however, quite free from objection. There are no indications of the southern and western tribes, such as Khariā, Juāng, Savara, Gadabā, and Kūrkū, having ever been included in the Kherwār tribe, and there seems to be little reason for replacing one incorrect name by another which is less incorrect, it is true, but is still not quite appropriate. The name Kherwārī will therefore in this Survey be reserved for the principal Muṇḍā language which is known as existing in several slightly varying dialects such as Santālī, Muṇḍārī, Hō, and so forth.

If we were to coin a new term for the family, the analogy of the denomination Dravidian might suggest our adopting a Sanskrit name. In Sanskrit the common name for the Mundā aborigines seems to be Nishāda. The Nishādas are identified with the Bhillas. They are found to the south-east of Madhyadēśa and in the Vindhya range. Their country is said to begin at the place where the river Sarasvatī disappears in the sands. In other words, the Nishādas lived in the desert and in the hills to the south and east of the stronghold of the Aryans, i.e. in districts where we now find Mundā tribes of their descendants. Compare Wilson's Vishnu Purāna, pp. 100 and f.

It would, however, only mean adding to the confusion which already exists if we were to propose a new name for the family, and the denomination introduced by Max Müller when he first showed that the languages in question formed one distinct group, will be adhered to in these pages.

The principal home of the Munda languages at the present day is the Chota Area within which spoken.

Nagpur Plateau. Speakers are further found in the adjoining districts of Madras and the Central Provinces, and in the Mahadeo Hills. They are almost everywhere found in the hills and jungles, the plains and valleys being inhabited by people speaking some Aryan language.

The Munda race is much more widely spread than the Munda languages. It has already been remarked that it is identical with the Dravidian race which forms the bulk of the population of Southern India, and which has also contributed largely to the formation of the actual population of the North. It is now in most cases impossible to decide whether an individual tribe has originally used a Munda or a Dravidian form of speech. The two racial groups must have merged into each other at a very early period. One dialect, the so-called Nabālī, still preserves traces of a manifold influence. It appears to have originally been a Munda form of speech, but has come under the influence of Dravidian languages. The result is a mixed dialect which has, in its turn, come under the spell of Aryan tongues, and which will probably ere long become an Aryan language. The same development has probably taken place in many other cases. The numerous Bhīl tribes occupy a territory of the same kind as that inhabited by the Mundas. Their various dialects show some traces of Dravidian influence, and it seems allowable to infer that these are the result of the same development the first stage of which lies before us in Nahālī. It is also probable that the tribes who speak various broken dialects in Western India, such as Köli and so forth, have originally used a Munda form of speech. It is not, however, now possible to decide the question.

There are, on the other hand, several Aryanised tribes in Northern India who have certainly once spoken some Mundā dialect. Such are the Cheros in Behar and Chota Nagpur, the Kherwārs, the Savaras who have formerly extended so far north as Shahabad, many of the so-called Rājbansis, and so forth. Traces of an old Mundā element are apparently also met with in several Tibeto-Burman dialects spoken in the Himalayas. Compare the remarks in Vol. iii, Part i of this Survey. At all events, Mundā languages must once have been spoken over a wide area in Central India, and probably also in the Ganges valley. They were, however, early superseded by Dravidian and Aryan forms of speech, and at the present day, only scanty remnants are found in the hills and jungles of Bengal and the Central Provinces.

It is no longer possible to decide to what extent the Munda languages can have influenced the other linguistic families of India. Our Munda element in Dravidian knowledge of them only dates back to the middle of the and Aryan languages. last century. Attention will be drawn to a few facts in the introduction to the Dravidian family which apparently point to the existence of a Munda element in Dravidian grammar. The whole matter is, however, beyond the limit of our observations, as the Munda influence must have been exercised at a very early period. In the case of Aryan languages, the Munda influence is apparently Professor Thomsen is of opinion that such an influence has probunimportant. ably been at play in fixing the principle regulating the inflexion of nouns in Indo-Aryan vernaculars. It is, however, more probable that it is Dravidian languages which have modified Aryan grammar in such characteristics, and that the Munda family has thus, at the utmost, exercised only an indirect influence through the Dravidian forms of

speech. There is, however, one instance where Munda principles appear to have pervaded an Aryan language, viz. in the conjugation of the Bihārī verb. Though the different forms used to denote an honorific or non-honorific subject or object and the curious change of the verb when the object is a pronoun of the second person singular can be explained from Aryan forms, the whole principle of indicating the object in the verb is thoroughly un-Aryan, but quite agrees with Munda grammar. The existence of a similar state of affairs in Kāśmīrī and in Shīnā must, of course, be accounted for in a different way.

It has already been remarked that the Mundas and Dravidas are considered by anthropologists to belong to the same race, but that their languages are not connected. Within India proper the Munda dialects form an isolated philological group. In Farther India and on the Nicobar Islands, on the other hand, we find a long series of dialects which in so many important points agree with the Munda languages that it seems necessary to assume a certain connexion. These languages include the so-called Mon-Khmer family, the dialects spoken by the aboriginal inhabitants of the Malayan Peninsula, and Nicobarese.

A short account of the Mön-Khmer family has been given above, in Vol. ii, pp. 1 and ff. A list of authorities will be found in the same place. The family comprises several languages and dialects, and some of them differ considerably from the others. This is for instance the case with Anamese, which is even considered by some not to be a member of the family. It must have branched off at a very early period and has later on come under the influence of Chinese. Similarly the Cham dialect of the old Kingdom of Champa has been largely influenced by Malay, and has even borrowed the Malay numerals. In spite of all this, however, there are so many points of analogy between all the dialects that they must be classed together as one family.

The Mon-Khmer dialects had long been considered as connected with the Tibeto-Chinese languages. Professor Kuhn has, however, shown that they form a separate family, and that connected forms of speech are found among the polysyllabic languages of Nearer and Farther India. Even anthropologically the speakers of Mon-Khmer dialects differ from the Chinese.

The word Mon has long ago been compared with Munda, and nobody now doubts that there is a connexion between the Mon-Khmer and the Munda languages. It has already been remarked that 'Munda' is an Aryan word. It cannot therefore have anything to do with 'Mon,' but that does not affect the argument. Pater W. Schmidt has been good enough to inform me that an older form of Mon is Man.

The first to draw attention to the connexion between the Munda languages and the Mon-Khmer family was Logan in his series of articles on the Ethnology of the Indo-Pacific Islands, in the Journal of the Indian Archipelago. 'Kol' is dealt with on pp. 199 and ff. of Vol. vii (1853). He was followed by F. Mason, in a paper on the Talaing language contributed to the fourth volume of the Journal of the American Oriental Society (1854). Mason tried to show that many Mon words corresponded to others in use in Kolh (i.e. Mundari), Göndi, Kurukh, and Malto. His comparisons are not convincing. His word lists were, however, reprinted in the British Burma Gazetteer

and also in the seventeenth volume of the French Revue de linguistique (pp. 167 and ff.).

The comparative tables of numerals and pronouns published by Max Müller in his letter on the classification of Turanian languages were made use of by the German Professor W. Schott for a comparison of the numerals and pronouns in Mundārī and Anamese.

Sir A. Phayre followed Dr. Mason, and he also found his theory confirmed by the resemblance between the stone implements, the so-called shoulder-headed celts, found in Pegu and in Chota Nagpur.

Other scholars such as Haswell and Forbes did not believe in the theory of a connexion. Forbes thought that there might have been intercourse, but no racial affinity, between Mons and Mundas.

A full discussion of the correspondence between Mon-Khmer and Munda vocabulary was given by Professor E. Kuhn in the paper mentioned under authorities below. He sums up his results as follows:—

'There are unmistakable points of connexion between our monosyllabic Khasi-Mon-Khmer family and the Kolh languages, Nancowry, and the dialects of the aborigines of Malacca. It would be rash to infer at once from this fact that it has the same origin as those eminently polysyllabic languages. It seems, however, certain that there is at the bottom of a considerable portion of the population of Further and Nearer India a common substratum, over which there have settled layers of later immigrants, but which, nevertheless, has retained such strength that its traces are still clearly seen over the whole area.'

The relationship existing between the Mon-Khmer languages and the dialects spoken by the wild tribes on the Malay Peninsula has lately been separately dealt with by Pater W. Schmidt. The result of his very careful and detailed studies is that the dialects in question, the so-called Sakei and Semang, must be considered as really belonging to the Mon-Khmer family.

We shall now turn to the relationship existing between the Mundā and the Mon-Khmēr languages.

Phonology.—The phonetic systems agree in several points. Thus both families possess aspirated hard and soft letters. Both avoid beginning a word with more than one consonant, and so forth. The most characteristic feature of Mundā phonology are the so-called semi-consonants k', ck', t', p'. They are formed in the mouth in the same way as the corresponding hard consonants k, ch, t, and p, but the sound is checked, and the breath does not touch the organs of speech in passing out. The sound often makes the impression of being slightly nasalised, and we therefore find writings such as tn or dn instead of t'; pm or bm instead of p', and so forth. Some corresponding sounds exist in Sakei and connected languages. In the Mon-Khmer forms of speech final consonants are, as a general rule, shortened in various ways. Similarly in Cham final k, t, p, and h are not pronounced, or their enunciation is at least checked so that only a good observer can decide which

sound is intended. As examples from the Mon-Khmer languages, we may quote Khmer $t\bar{a}k$, Bahnar tah, to lay down; Khmer $t\bar{u}ch$, like; Bahnar hadoi, in the same way; Khmer $t\bar{a}p$, Bahnar $t\bar{a}m$, to perforate, etc. It is impossible not to compare these sounds with the Muṇḍā semi-consonants.

Formation of words.—It is difficult to compare the formation of words in the Mundā and Mōn-Khmēr families. Nobody has as yet attempted to give a thorough analysis of the vocabulary of the Mundā dialects, and I have not had access to sufficient materials for a thorough study of the Mōn-Khmēr languages. We can, however, already point out some characteristics in which both families agree. The most important one is the common use of infixes. Compare Khmēr kal, to support; kh-n-al, support: Stieng, sa, eat; sĕ-p-a, food, and so forth. I may further mention the reduplication of the base or of its first letters, and the use of prefixes, though we are not as yet sufficiently acquainted with the rôle which those latter additions play in the formation of Mundā words.

Vocabulary.—The vocabulary of both families often agrees in a very striking manner. Attention has long ago been drawn to the conspicuous similarity of the numerals. The short table which follows will be sufficient to illustrate the matter. Further details will be found in the works by Messrs. Kuhn and Schmidt mentioned under authorities:—

	Santālī,	Khariā.	Savara.	Khmēr,
1.	mit'	moyod	bo, aboi, mi-	mūy.
2.	bar	$ub\bar{a}r$	bāgu, bār-	bīr.
3.	pä	$upar{e}$	yāgi, yār-	piy.
4.	pon	i'pon	$u\tilde{n}ji$	puon.
5.	mārā	moloi	molloi	prā, Mon p'sun.
6.	turui	tiburu	tudru, turru	kron, Bahnar tödrāu, Mön t'rāu.
7.	eae	gul	gul- ji	grul.
8.	iral	$th\bar{a}m$	tam-ji	kati, Anam tam, Sue thkol.
9.	arä	tomsin	tim-ji	kansar, Bahnar töxin, Palaung
10.	gäl	gol	gal- ji	tim. uai, Lemet kel.

It is not necessary to enter into a detailed discussion of the forms given in the table. The striking agreement leaps at once to the eye.

With regard to pronouns we cannot expect to find corresponding forms throughout. The old personal pronouns are so commonly replaced by complimentary nouns in all the languages of Farther India that it would often be useless to make a comparison. Some striking instances, however, are still available which show that the two families have

¹ Pater W. Schmidt's masterly treatment of the phonology of these forms of speech could not be utilized for this introduction.

here also preserved important traces of a common origin, or, at all events, of a common substratum. Compare the table which follows:—

	-	WE	TWO	w	E
	1	exclusive.	inclusive.	exclusive.	inclusi v e
Santālī Bahnar	2ñ iñ	(a)liñ ñi	(a)lañ ba	(a)lä ñon	(a)bon bön

There is no difficulty in comparing Santālī liñ, I and he, with Bahnar ñi. Compare Santālī ñäl, Muṇḍārī lel, see.

The personal pronouns are often suffixed in both families in order to supply the place of possessive pronouns.

We can further compare the demonstrative bases ni and no in Santālī with Bahnar ne, this; no, that, and so on.

There is also a considerable proportion of the vocabulary which is common to both families. It will be sufficient to give a few instances.

I.—Parts of the body.

Back.—Santāli dea, Khariā kundabn, Savara kindon; Bahnar kedu.

Blood.—Santālī māyām; Stieng maham.

Eye.—Santālī mat'; Bahnar, etc., mat.

Foot.—Santālī janga, Juang ijin; Bahnar jön; Stieng jon.

Hand.—Santālī ti; Bahnar, etc., ti.

Nose .- Santālī mũ, Bahnar, etc., muh.

II.—Animals.

Bird.—Santālī sim; Bahnar śēm, Mon che.

Crab.—Santālī kaṭkām; Bahnar kötam.

Dog. - Savara kinsor; Huei, Sue, etc., sor.

Fish.-Kürkü kākū; Bahnar, etc., ka.

Peacock.-Santālī marak'; Mon mrāk.

Snake.—Santālī biñ ; Bahnar bih, Stieng beh.

Tiger .- Santālī kul, Muņdārī kulā, Mon, Bahnar kla, Kuy khola.

III.—Objects of nature.

Earth.—Santālī át; Mundarī ote; Mon ti.

Mountain.—Santālī buru ; Kuy brou, brau.

Forest.—Santālī bir; Khmēr bréi, Bahnar, etc., bri.

Salt.—Santālī bu-lu- \dot{n} ; Stieng $b\tilde{o}\dot{h}$, Bahnar boh.

Sun.—Santālī siñ ; Palaung senei, Selong sen.

Wood.—Santālī bir; Bahnar, etc., bri.

Water .- Santālī dak'; Bahnar, etc., dak.

IV .- Miscellaneous.

Die. - Santālī gách'; Khmēr kh-m-och, corpse.

Drunk.—Santālī bul; Bahnar, Khmēr bul.

Eat.—Santālī jam, jo; Bahnar śa, Mon cha, Proons chon.

Lie down.-Santālī gitich'; Mon stik.

Child.—Santālī hán, Kūrkū kon; Mon, Anam, etc., kon.

Name.—Santālī nu-tu-m, Korwā yum, Savara nim, Kūrkū jūmū; Mon ymu, Khmēr jhmōh.

Not .- Santālī ban; Rengao bi.

The preceding remarks will have been sufficient to show that the general frame-work of both families is so analogous that there must be a close connexion. The inflexional system and the structure of sentences, on the other hand, differ in both. I do not think that much importance should be attached to the fact that the modern order of words is different. The same is the case in two so closely connected groups of one and the same family as Tai and Tibeto-Burman. It is more important that the conjugation of verbs is quite different. It should, however, be borne in mind that we do not know much about the history of the Mundā and Mōn-Khmēr languages. We cannot any more consider them as unmixed forms of speech, and the different conjugational system can very well be due to foreign influence.

The Mon-Khmer languages are monosyllabic and the Munda family polysyllabic. That is not, however, a sufficient reason for separating the two families. It is only the bases in Mon-Khmer that are monosyllabic. Polysyllabic words are of common occurrence, just as is the case in Sakei and Semang, and it is very probable that further research will show that the bases of Munda words are likewise monosyllabic.

The most probable solution of the whole problem seems to be that the Mundā and the Mōn-Khmēr languages are derived from one and the same base. Each group has, however, had an independent history of its own, under the influence of various foreign elements. It seems probable that the Mundā languages have developed the tendencies of the common parent tongue with the greatest fidelity. The tribes speaking them have led a more secluded existence than the Mōn-Khmērs. The old history of both groups is, however, as yet lost in the mist of antiquity.

Aboriginal languages of the Malay Peninsula are so closely related to Mōn-Khmēr that Pater Schmidt, the latest and best authority on the subject, does not hesitate to consider them as a branch of that family. They are spoken by the Sakei and Semang tribes. The Sakeis are also anthropologically connected with the Mōn-Khmēr tribes. The Semangs, on the other hand, are Negritos, and Pater Schmidt is probably right in supposing that they have abandoned their original speech and adopted a foreign one. The oldest population of the Malay Peninsula were probably all Negritos, and the Sakeis are therefore perhaps later immigrants. According to Forbes, 'the earliest Mōn traditions speak of a race, called Beloos (monsters) whom the Mōn and Burman races found occupying the sea-coast.' It is possible that the 'Beloos' were Negritos. We do not, however, know anything certain about them or their history.

It is not necessary to enter into details with regard to the dialects of the Sakeis and Semangs. Most of the remarks already made about the Mon-Khmers apply equally to them.

According to Colonel Sir Richard Temple, 'the Nicobarese speak one language in six dialects so different as to be mutually unintelligible to the ear. These six dialects are, from North to South, Car-Nicobar, Chowra, Teressa, Central, Southern and Shom Pen.' The same authority sums up the results of his enquiries into the philological position of Nicobarese as follows:—

'The Nicobarese have been on the same ground for at least 2,000 years, and they have a tradition of a migration from the Pegu-Tenasserim Coast. They have been quite isolated from the coast people, except for trade, for all that period. Their language has been affected by outside influences almost entirely only in trade directions, and then not to a great degree. It has been subjected to internal change to a certain degree by the effects of tabu. Yet we find roots in the language of the kind that remain unchanged in all speech, which are apparently beyond question identical with those that have remained unchanged in the dialects of the wild tribes of the Malay Peninsula; these very roots owe their existence among the wild tribes to the effect on them of the influence of the Indo-Chinese languages, civilised and uncivilised. Considering then the long isolation of the Nicobarese, it is a fair inference that these islanders probably preserve a form of the general Indo-Chinese speech that is truer to its original forms than that of any existing people on the Continent.'

When writing the above, Sir R. Temple was unacquainted with Pater Schmidt's studies. We now know that the wild tribes of the Malay Peninsula, the Sakeis and Semangs, speak a language which seems to be radically connected with Mon-Khmer. In the case of the Sakeis, it is probably the original language of the tribe, while the Semangs have adopted it from others. The many points of connexion between Nicobarese and those forms of speech therefore point to a similar state of affairs.

Results of this part of the We may therefore sum up the preceding remarks as follows:-

The Mundas, the Mon-Khmer, the wild tribes of the Malay Peninsula, and the Nicobarese all use forms of speech which can be traced back to a common source, though they mutually differ widely from each other. Each of the tribes has had a development of its own, and each dialect has, in each case, struck out on independent lines. Their development has also been influenced from without, in consequence of race mixture with outsiders. We cannot, however, any more trace the various stages in that development, because the old history of the tribes in question is not known to us. Pater W. Schmidt divides all these languages into three main branches, viz.:—

- I. Khassi; Wa angku, Riang, Palaung, and Danaw; Nicobarese;
- II. Semang, Tembe, Senoi and Sakei;
- III. Mon-Khmer languages, Anamese, Bersisi, and Munda.

Professor Vilhelm Thomsen of Copenhagen, in his paper On the position of the Kherwarian Languages, has tried to show that there is some connexion between the Munda dialects and Australian languages. He says:—

'I desire to draw attention to a series of very remarkable coincidences between them (i.e. the Mundā languages) and several of the . . . aboriginal languages in the southern part of the Australian continent, such as Dippil and Turrubul in Southern Queensland; Kamilaroy, 'Wiradurei, Lake Macquarie, Wodi-Wodi, and others in New South Wales; the languages spoken on the Encounter Bay and about Adelaide, and also the Parnkalla spoken to the west of Spencer's Gulf in South Australia; and lastly several languages of West Australia. These South-Australian languages cannot, notwithstanding the great difference existing between them, be separated from each other, but they must be supposed to have some common origin. The points of analogy which have been supposed to exist between them and the Dravidian languages, must certainly be dismissed. Compare Friedrich Müller, Grundriss der Sprachwissenschaft, Vol. ii, Part i, pp. 95 and ff. On the other hand, I think there is unquestionably a certain connexion between the Australian and Kherwarian languages.

It is not only possible to point to similarity in vocabulary, but especial stress should be laid on the fact that the analogy extends to the principles according to which the languages are built up and to the relations and ideas which have found their expression in the grammatical forms. There seems also to be an unmistakable similarity in some details of these forms, if it is permissible to draw any conclusions in this respect so long as we are quite ignorant of the phonetical development of the languages. We cannot, however, expect to find any obvious analogy throughout in grammatical details, the less so when we remember how much the Australian languages themselves differ from each other in this respect.'

Professor Thomsen thinks that these similarities must be explained by the supposition that Indian Muṇḍās, or some closely connected tribe, emigrated towards the east and south-east, 'say to New Guinea, where von der Gabelentz thinks that they have left traces in the languages on the Maclay coast, but especially to the south of the Australian continent, where the languages still are of a kind similar to the Kherwarian, though crossings and intermixtures, of which nothing can as yet be known, have no doubt also taken place here.'

A similar theory has been propounded by G. von der Gabelentz in his book Die Sprachwissenschaft. Leipzig, 1891, pp. 274 and f. He says:—

'We are probably justified in speaking of a Kolarian-Australian family of languages.'

Von der Gabelentz has not adduced any facts in support of this view. It is possibly based on a comparison of materials which are not accessible to me. Professor Thomsen, on the other hand, gives some details, and it will be necessary to examine them.

Vocabulary. His first argument is based on some correspondence in vocabulary, and he here enters into details, as follows:—

'Santālī in, I; Muṇḍārī in, ain, correspond to forms containing an n in all Australian languages; thus Dippil, Turrubul, Kamilaroy, Adelaide, Parnkalla nai, etc.

Santālī alin, Mundārī alin, we two (i.e. he and I) correspond to Dippil nu-lin, a-len; Kamilaroy nu-le; Wiradurei na-li; Lake Macquarie (oblique) na-lin (thou and I; nalin-pon, he and I); Adelaide, Parnkalla na-di; West-Australian na-li.

Santālī alā, we,=Turrubul nu-le; Adelaide na-dlu, etc.

Santālī uni, nui, he, she, it (animate beings) ona, noa (inanimate), should be compared with Lake Macquarie noa, he, that; uni, unoa, this; Dippil unda, Turrubul wunāl, he, etc.'

Professor Thomsen further compares Santālī $m\tilde{a}t$, eye, with Kamilaroy, Wiradurei mil, Wodi-Wodi $m\bar{e}r$; Santālī mu, nose, with Kamilaroy, Dippil $m\bar{u}r\bar{u}$, Turrubul $m\bar{u}ro$; Santālī janga, foot, with Wiradurei dinan, Kamilaroy dina, Dippil dzhinun; Santālī $h\tilde{a}r$, man, with Lake Macquarie kore, Encounter Bay korn (compare Kūrkū $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$); Santālī ban, not, with Dippil ba. We may add Santālī $al\bar{a}n$, Turrubul tulun, Lake Macquarie, Wodi-Wodi tulun, tongue,

With regard to numerals Professor Thomsen compares Santālī *mit'*, *mit'-ṭan*, one, with Wodi-Wodi *mitun*, Kamilaroy *māl*; Santālī *bār*, two, with Lake Macquarie *buloāra*, Kamilaroy, Dippil, Wodi-Wodi *bulār*.

I now proceed to an examination of these comparisons and begin with the numerals.

The similarity between Mundā and Australian numerals is not very striking. Few Australian languages possess more than the three first numerals. The form for 'one' differs in most of them. Compare Lake Macquarie wakol, Wiradurei numbai, Kingki piēya; Turrubul kunar, Dippil kalim, Encounter Bay yamalaitye, Adelaide kuma, West Australian kain, gain, and so forth. Even Kamilaroy māl and Wodi-Wodi mitun do not exactly correspond to Santālī mit', the initial m of which word is an old prefix and at all events there can be no question of comparing the Australian word for 'one' in general with mit'.

With regard to 'two', most Australian languages possess forms beginning with a b. Thus, Lake Macquarie $bulo\bar{a}ra$, Wiradurei bula, Kamilaroy, Dippil, and Wodi-Wodi $b\bar{u}l\bar{a}r$, Wailwun bulugur, Kingki $b\bar{u}dela$, Turrubul $b\bar{u}d\bar{e}l\bar{a}$, Lake Tyers $b\bar{u}l\bar{u}man$, Lake Hindmarsh pullet, River Yarra $bolow\bar{v}n$, Jajowerong $b\bar{u}laitsh$, Witouro bullait, Toungurong bullarbil. The base seems to be bula, bulo, or something like that. The similarity with Mundā $b\bar{a}r$ is far from being evident, even if b is not an old prefix (compare Lemet ar; Khassi $\bar{a}r$) but belongs to the base.

It cannot, however, be denied that a sort of similarity exists between the two first numerals in Mundā and some Australian languages. It would be very rash to infer anything about their mutual relationship from this fact. A much more striking analogy can be found between the numerals in languages where community of origin is quite out of the question. Compare, for example, ek, one, in the language of the Mixteques in America, with the Hindōstānī ek. Forms corresponding to Santālī mit, one; $b\bar{a}r$, two, are found in some Negro languages of Africa. Compare Herero mue, one; vari, two; Maba bar, two.

Moreover, every trace of analogy between Mundā and Australian languages ceases when we go beyond two. I therefore think we are forced to the conclusion that the analogy in the case of the two first numerals is only apparent.

The same is, so far as I can see, the case with regard to pronouns.

The pronoun 'I' has forms containing an n in many languages. Thus in Melanesian nu, n, in Mande (Africa) n, Bullom (Africa) yan, and so forth. The pronominal suffixes of the first person in Australian languages, on the other hand, show that n is not

essential to the pronoun. Compare Wiradurei na-du, I, to which correspond the suffixed forms du and tu. Similarly in Encounter Bay, 'I' is $n\bar{a}$ -pe or $n\bar{a}$ -te, and the corresponding suffixes are ape, ap, an, ate.

The forms of the dual and plural of the pronoun of the first person unquestionably bear some similarity to the corresponding Mundā forms. In the Mundā languages the bases of these forms are, however, $li\,\tilde{n}$, $li\dot{n}$, and le, while lin, li, and le in the Australian languages appear to be suffixes of number. Compare Lake Macquarie bu-la, you two, Encounter Bay $\dot{n}ur$ -le, you two, and so forth.

The apparent similarity between the forms for 'we two' and 'we' is more than outweighed by the fact that the Australian languages do not appear to distinguish between forms including and such as exclude the party addressed in the dual and plural of the personal pronoun of the first person. Professor Thomsen, it is true, mentions na-lin, thou and I; nalin-pon, he and I, from the dialect spoken at Lake Macquarie. The latter form, however, contains the ordinary dual na-lin, and the pronoun of the third person singular. It will be seen that the principle is quite different.

Moreover, the parallelism between Mundā and Australian languages ceases to exist when we consider the forms for 'thou.' Melanesian, on the other hand, has forms, such as mu, m, which correspond to the Mundā am. Compare also Bullom (Africa) mun, moa, thou.

Bases corresponding to Santālī uni, nui, ona, noa, this, do occur not only in Australian languages, but also in the Melanesian na, n, he, and in many other languages, including the Aryan dialects of India.

I therefore think that no conclusion whatever can be based on the apparent similarity in pronouns and numerals between the Munda languages on the one hand and the Australian on the other.

If we turn to the other words compared by Professor Thomsen the result will be the same. The similarity is, in most cases, far from being striking. I omit from consideration the words for 'nose' and 'foot' in which no one will, I think, deny that the analogy is very small indeed.

For 'eye' we find the forms mil and mēr which Professor Thomsen compares with Santālī māt'. This latter word, however, more closely resembles forms such as mata, mat, meta, eme, and so forth, in numerous Oceanic languages. Compare also mik, and mit, or mih, i.e. mit' in several Tibeto-Burman forms of speech.

'Man' is kore in Lake Macquarie and korn in Encounter Bay. This word of course resembles Santālī $h\hat{a}r$, Kūrkū $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, man. But so does also Fūlbe gorko which hails from Africa. Moreover, the base of Kūrkū $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$ is probably $r\bar{o}$, and $k\bar{o}$ an old prefix. Compare Khassi $br\bar{i}w$, man, which contains another prefix b. Forms such as Kamilaroy $giw\bar{i}r$, Wiradurei gibir, Victoria $k\bar{u}l$ - $\bar{i}nt$, man, render the probability of a connexion with the Mundā word for 'man' very slight.

Nor can any importance be attached to the similarity between Dippil ba, Santālī, ban, not, when we consider Lake Macquarie kora, Wiradurei karia, Kamilaroy kāmil, Adelaide yako, West Australian bart, not, and when we remember that ba, not, also occurs in far-off African languages such as Hausa.

An examination of the points in which the vocabularies of the Munda and the Australian languages have been supposed to agree therefore shows that such analogy

as seems to exist is too questionable to be made the basis of any conclusion. It would be necessary to point out many more cases of unquestionable similarity in order to make the supposition of a connexion probable.

Professor Thomsen's opinion, that there is a connexion between the two families, is, however, less based on a comparison of vocabulary than on the analogy which he finds between the grammatical principles prevailing in both. He has not pointed to any definite facts in support of his view, and we must therefore base the remarks which follow on such materials as are available.

Like the Munda languages, the Australian forms of speech do not clearly distinguish between noun and verb. The same is, however, the case in so many languages all over the earth that no conclusions can be drawn from such analogy.

Phonology.—The phonetical system of Australian languages is extremely simple. There are no aspirates, no sibilants, no h, and probably originally no soft mutes such as g, d, or b. There is, more especially, nothing to correspond to the semi-consonants which are so characteristic of Mundā languages. These sounds have, on the other hand, though without just cause, been compared with the so-called 'clicks' of African languages.

Formation of words.—The Australian languages use suffixes in order to form new words. So far as we can see, they have nothing corresponding to the Munda infixes. This point is of some importance as affecting the whole structure of the language.

Nouns.—Australian languages do not distinguish between animate and inanimate nouns, as do the Mundā forms of speech and many other linguistic families.

In Mundā, there are three numbers. The same is the case with regard to pronouns in Australia. In the case of nouns, on the other hand, most Australian languages do not distinguish number. In Adelaide and Encounter Bay, however, there are three numbers as in Mundā. The dual suffixes are rla or dla in Adelaide and enk in Encounter Bay, and those of the plural na and ar, respectively. Compare the suffixes of the pronoun of the third person, dual enk, plural ar in Encounter Bay. The numbers are, accordingly, indicated in the same way as in Mundā. Compare, however, also Encounter Bay nīng-enk, two; nepald-ar, maltāi-ar, three.

There are no separate suffixes to denote the subject and the object. This is, however, so generally the case in many languages that no conclusion can be based on the fact. The Australian languages, on the other hand, in one important point differ from the Muṇḍā forms of speech, viz., in possessing a separate suffix denoting the agent. Thus, wākun-to minarin tatan, crow-by what eats? what is the crow eating? According to Professor Fr. Müller this is a characteristic feature of all Australian languages. The similarity between this suffix to and the Muṇḍā te is probably only apparent. The same is the case with the West Australian genitive suffix ak, ang, or, after vowels, rak, rang, as compared with Santālā ak', an, reak', rean. The corresponding form in most Australian languages is ku. Such analogies become insignificant when we compare the genitive suffix ka, ga, in the language of the Bushmen, and ang, nak, in Maba, both of which belong to Africa.

Some remarks have already been made regarding numerals and pronouns. In this connexion I shall only point out that the Australian numerals do not go further than 'three' and accordingly do not possess anything corresponding to the principle prevailing

in Muṇḍā and several other linguistic families of counting in twenties. There are further, no double sets of the dual and the plural of the pronoun of the first person. I may add that the bases of the interrogative pronouns are quite different. Compare Turrubul $nan-d\bar{u}$, who? $min\bar{a}$, what? and similar forms in all other dialects.

Verbs.—The Australian languages possess a richly varied system of verbal forms. In this respect they agree with the Mundā dialects, but also with languages of other families such as Turkish. Some of the tense-suffixes apparently resemble those in use in the Mundā family. Thus the present suffix an in Lake Macquarie, in, un, $\bar{e}n$ in Encounter Bay can apparently be compared with the Santālī suffixes en, an. The suffix \bar{e} or $\bar{\imath}$ of the past in Wiradurei, Kamilaroy, Turrubul, and Adelaide bears some resemblance to Santālī et'; the pluperfect suffixes \bar{a} -kean in Lake Macquarie and lain, $l\bar{e}n$ in Kamilaroy might be connected with Santālī akan and len, respectively. It would, however, be rash to lay any stress on such analogy in sound.

We find reflexive and reciprocal bases and so forth, but they are formed in a way quite different from that prevailing in Munda, and the whole structure of the verb is, so far as I can see, quite different.

The passive is formed by adding the pronominal suffixes denoting the object and is not an independent form, as is the case in Mundā.

There is nothing corresponding to the categorical a, and participles are, at least in Kamilaroy, formed by adding suffixes to the tense bases.

The subject is indicated by adding pronominal suffixes, which in Encounter Bay are sometimes added to preceding words. Thus, $y\bar{a}p$ -ap el-in, fuel-I go, I go after fuel. A similar construction is, however, also found elsewhere. Compare the African Hottentot $ts\tilde{i}$ -b ma, and he gives. It has already been remarked that there is a separate pronominal suffix denoting the agent, a state of affairs which is quite foreign to the Muṇḍā languages.

The object is often indicated by adding pronominal suffixes. Thus, nolk-ur-an-el, bit-me-by-him, he bit me; memp-ir-an-el, struck-me-by-him, he struck me, in Encounter Bay. In the Mundā languages, on the other hand, infixes are used instead, while the language of the Hottentots in this respect agrees with Australian; thus, mu-bi-b, see-him-he, he sees him; ma-do-gu-b, give-you-them-he, he gives them to you. Moreover, there is nothing to correspond to the various infixes denoting the indirect object or the genitive which are so characteristic a feature in Mundā languages.

The various forms corresponding to our verbal tenses are further often based on principles which are not found to prevail in the Mundā family. Thus the Wiradurei possesses five different forms which can be translated as a perfect. Thus, $b\bar{u}m$ -al-guain, have struck; $b\bar{u}m$ -al- $\bar{a}wan$, have just struck; $b\bar{u}m$ -al- $\bar{n}\bar{a}rin$, have struck to-day; $b\bar{u}m$ -al-guain, have struck yesterday; $b\bar{u}m$ -al-gunan, have struck a long time ago.

The result of the preceding remarks has not been to corroborate the hypothesis of a close connexion between the Australian and the Mundā languages. Such analogy as exists concerns general features which recur in the most different languages all over the world. Our knowledge of the Australian languages is very limited, and I have not been in a position to make use of all that has been written about them. It is therefore possible that Messrs. Thomsen and von der Gabelentz would be able to support their theory with facts which I do not know. So far, however, nothing has been adduced

which proves the existence of a connexion between the two groups of languages, or which even makes it probable.

It is, of course, possible that further researches may adduce new facts which will prove Professor Thomsen to have been right. In that case the explanation will probably be found to be that given by him, that the analogy must be due to the influence of the language of immigrants from India or Australonesia to Australia.¹

The Munda family comprises several dialects. The table which follows shows their names and the estimated number of speakers. Revised figures, based on the returns of the last Census, have been added in a third column:—

			Name	of diale	ct.				Estimated number o speakers.	£	Census of 1901.
Santālī									1,614,822		1,795,113
Muṇḍārī									406,524		460,744
Bhumij									79,078		111,304
Birh â r									1,234		526
Kōḍā									8,949		23,873
Ηō									383,126		371,860
Tūrī							•		3,727		3,880
Asurī									19,641		4,894
Korwā									20,227	-	16,442
Kūrkū									111,684		87,675
Khariā									72,172		82,506
Juang			•						15,697		10,853
Savara									102,039		157,136
adabā		•	٠.			•			35,833	.	37,230
	7		17				То	TAL	2,874,753	-1	3,164,036

Santālī, Mundārī, Bhumij, Bīrhār, Kōdā, Hō, Tūrī, Asurī, and Korwā are only slightly differing forms of one and the same language. All those tribes are, according to Santālī traditions, descended from the same stock, and were once known as Kherwārs or Kharwārs. The Kherwārs of the present day, a cultivating and landholding tribe of Chota Nagpur and Southern Behar, have probably the same origin. The dialects spoken by the tribes just mentioned will in this Survey be collected under the head of Kherwārī. Kherwārī is the principal Mundā language, its dialects having been returned by full 88 per cent. of all the speakers of Mundā tongues. Kherwārī is also the only Mundā form of speech which has remained comparatively free from the influence of neighbouring languages. The vocabulary is to some extent Aryan, and some of the usual suffixes

¹ I cannot in this place enter into the question of the relationship between our Mundā-Mōu-Khmēr family and the languages of Australonesia (Indonesian, Melanesian, Polynesian). I am convinced that Pater W. Schmidt is right in classing all these forms of speech together into one great family, but I am not as yet in a position to prove the connexion.

are apparently taken from the same source. The whole character of the language has, however, been preserved with great fidelity, though Aryan principles have of late begun to influence the grammar also. Kherwārī can therefore be considered as the typical representative of the Mundā family.

The remaining dialects are spoken by comparatively small tribes. They have all been largely influenced by Aryan languages, and, in the case of Savara and Gadabā, also by Dravidian forms of speech.

Savara is most closely related to Khariā. It has, however, been largely influenced by Telugu, and it is now a mixed form of speech. This is also the case with Gadabā, where Aryan and Dravidian elements have to a certain extent overgrown the Mundā forms and grammatical principles.

Some of the most characteristic features of the Mundā languages, or at least of its

General character of the Mundā best known representative, will be mentioned in the introduction to Santālī. It will, however, be of interest in this place to make some short remarks on the general character of the family.

Phonology.—The phonetical system of the Mundā languages is very richly developed. It will be shown below under the head of Santālī how that language abounds in vowels. The same is probably the case in other Mundā dialects, though we have not so full and trustworthy information about them as in the case of Santālī. In that language, and in Mundārī, and apparently also in Kūrkū, there are moreover distinct traces of the working of that well-known law of harmonic sequence which affects the vowels of consecutive syllables so as to make them agree with each other in sound. The details will be found under the head of Santālī.

The Munda languages also possess a richly developed system of consonants. Hard and soft consonants are freely used, and both classes can be aspirated. In Aryan loanwords, however, the aspiration is often dropped.

In addition to the consonants known from Aryan languages, we also find a set of semi-consonants. The details will be found under the head of Santālī. These semi-consonants form a very characteristic feature of the Mundā languages. The materials collected for the purposes of this Survey have not, however, been prepared by scholars with a phonetical training. We cannot, therefore, expect to find these peculiarly difficult sounds noted with accurate correctness in the specimens printed in this volume. It is, on the whole, not possible to form an adequate idea of the phonetical system of the Mundā languages from the materials available. It is only the specimens of Santālī and its dialects forwarded from the Sonthal Parganas which are quite trustworthy in this respect.

The semi-consonants correspond to the so-called abrupt tone of Indo-Chinese languages. Similar sounds appear to exist in Sakei and Semang, and probably also in most Mon-Khmer languages.

No Santālī word can begin with more than one consonant. The same rule apparently holds good in other Mundā dialects.

Formation of words.—Words are formed from bases or other words by means of reduplication or by adding affixes. The numerous Aryan loan-words are, in this respect, treated as indigenous Mundā words. The whole root or its first elements can be doubled, and in this way the meaning is intensified in various ways. In this connexion I may also mention the very common jingles such as Santālī chas-bas, cultivation; sojhe-mojhe, straight away (sojhē is a Bihārī loan-word).

With regard to affixes, we are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of prefixes. It is, however, probable that they have played a considerable rôle in the history of Muṇḍā words. Compare Santālī a-lan, Kūrkū lan, tongue; Santālī a-nu, to give to drink; Santālī mo-cha, Kūrkū chā-bū, mouth; Santālī a-krin, to give to buy, to sell; kirin, buy; Savara kin-sor, dog; kim-pon, belly; tim-ji, nine; Khariā ro-mong, nose, etc.¹

The most important means of modifying the meaning of a root is, however, the insertion of infixes. Compare the Mundari ma-na-ran, greatness, from maran, great; ma-pa-ran, very great, and so forth.

Suffixes do not appear to play any prominent rôle in the formation of Mundā words. Such as are in common use are pronominal.

The Mundā languages belong to that class which possesses a richly varied stock of words to denote individual things and ideas, but is extremely poor in general and abstract terms. Thus there are in Santālī at least twelve verbs which can be translated 'to carry.' Compare dipil, to carry on the head; gugu, to carry on the back; hāo, to carry astride the hip; hārmāt', to carry under the arm, and so forth. Such verbs denote the various ways of carrying, and there is no general term simply meaning 'to carry.' In a similar way nouns denoting relationship are seldom conceived in the abstract, but a pronominal suffix restricting the sphere of the idea is usually added. Thus, Santālī enga-ñ, my mother; enga-t, his mother; but seldom enga, in the meaning of mother, alone.

Classes of words.—The various classes of words are not clearly distinguished. The same base can often be used as a noun, an adjective, or a vero. Spoken language, of course, is not composed of words but of sentences, and the meaning of each individual word is only apparent from the context. The Mundā words simply denote some being, object, quality, action, or the like, but they do not tell us how they are conceived. It is for instance only after inspection of the context that we can decide whether a word denoting the idea 'to give' means 'giving,' or 'given.'

Inflexional system.—The Muṇḍā inflexional system in many respects differs from that prevailing in Aryan and Dravidian languages.

Nouns.—Nouns do not differ for gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding words meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. There is, however, a feminine termination i used in a few words; thus Santālī $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, boy; $k\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$, girl. Such instances are, however, due to Aryan influence.

Nouns, on the other hand, can be divided into two classes, viz., those that denote animate beings, and those that denote inanimate objects respectively.

¹ The personal pronouns possess suffixed forms of the genitive; thus, apu-\(\tilde{n}\), my father. According to Pater W. Schmidt a suffixed genitive without any case mark is only used in such languages as form their inflexional forms by means of prefixes See his paper in Mitteilungen der Anthropologischen Gesellschaft in Wien, xxxiii, 1903, p. 381,

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the dual is $k\bar{\imath}n$ or $k\bar{\imath}n$, and that of the plural $k\bar{\imath}$ or $k\bar{\imath}n$, in all dialects of Kherwārī and in Kūrkū. Those suffixes can therefore be considered as the common property of the whole family. In Juāng and Khariā the suffix of the plural is ki, to which corresponds Savara ji. This ki or ji is probably the old dual suffix. Khariā has formed a new dual suffix $kij\bar{\imath}ar$, which is clearly derived from ki by adding $\bar{\imath}ar$. This $\bar{\imath}ar$ is probably the numeral $b\bar{\imath}ar$, two. Compare $amb\bar{\imath}ar$ and $am\bar{\imath}ar$, you two. Juāng and Savara have apparently no dual suffix. The same is the case with Gadabā.

The Munda languages do not possess anything corresponding to the cases of the direct and indirect objects. These relations find their expression in the verb. In this respect we may compare Munda with, for instance, the so-called incorporating languages of America. In the minor dialects, however, Aryan suffixes of the dative and the accusative are gradually being introduced.

The various relations of time and space are indicated by adding postpositions.

The genitive is an adjective. In the most typical Munda languages it has various forms according to whether it qualifies an animate or an inanimate noun.

Numerals.—The first ten numerals in Santālī, Khariā, and Savara have been given in the table on p. 12. The Santālī numerals are typical of all the dialects of the so-called Kherwārī. The table which follows registers the forms in use in the other dialects:—

	Santālī.	Kürkü.	Khariā.	Juāng.	Savara.	Gadabā.
1	mit'	mīā	moyod	min ; eka	bo	mui-rō
2	$bar{a}r$ - $ear{a}$	bār-iā	baria	ban ; dui	$b\bar{a}gu$	bār-jū
3	$p\ddot{\vec{a}}$ - $ar{a}$	āpi-ā	upe	tin	$y\bar{a}gi$	ig-rö
4	pōn-cā	upūn-ia	i'pon	chāri	$u\widetilde{n}ji$	uun-rō
5	mลิรูลี	monoiyā	moloi	pāñch	molloi	manlēi
6	$turar{u}i$	turūiyā	tiburu	chhao	$tu\dot{q}ru$	tīr
7	ēāe	yēya	gul	$sar{a}ta$	gul- ji	$s\bar{a}t$
8	$irar{a}l$	ilār-iya	tham	āṭha	tam-ji	āţh
9	ārä	ārē-ya	tomsiń	nao	tim-ji	nou
10	gäl	gel-ya	gol	daso	gal- ji	das
20	isī	īsā	bis ; kori	kodi	kodi	bīs

It will be seen that Juang and Gadabā have adopted Aryan forms. The same is, to a great extent, also the case in other dialects. Thus the Aryan forms are commonly used in all business transactions. Khariā and Savara differ from the rest in the numerals seven, eight, and nine. A comparison of the table on p. 12 will show that in this respect they agree with Mon-Khmer.

Higher numbers are counted in twenties.

Pronouns.—The materials available do not allow us to give a full list of the personal pronouns in all Muṇḍā languages. The details will be found under the head of the various dialects. It has already been remarked that Juāng, Savara, and Gadabā have apparently abandoned the use of the dual.

The dual and plural of the personal pronoun of the first person have two forms, one excluding, and one including, the party addressed. Khariā has here, as in the case of nouns, partly adopted new forms. With regard to Juāng, Savara, and Gadabā, our information is insufficient.

Kherwārī has a long series of pronominal suffixes and infixes. The details will be found under the head of Santālī. Other dialects have only preserved traces of these affixes.

Verb.—The nature of the typical Mundā verb will be discussed in some detail under the head of Santālī. In this place I shall only mention that Aryan principles have largely influenced the verbs of the minor dialects.

For further details the student is referred to the remarks in the introduction to Santālī and under the head of the various dialects.

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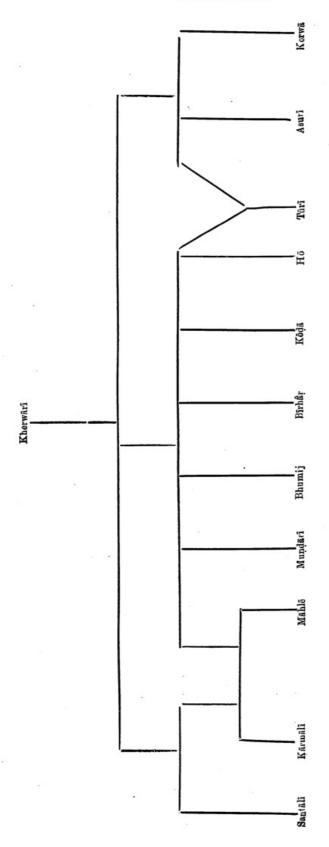


Table indicating the relationship of the different Kherwari dialects.

KHERWĀRĪ.

About eleven-twelfths of all Muṇḍās, in the wider sense of the term, speak slightly varying dialects of one language, which I have called Kherwārī, i.e. the language of the Kherwārs. The Kherwārs or Kharwārs are now a cultivating and landholding tribe of Chota Nagpur and Southern Behar who are quite Aryanized. In the traditions of the Santāl people, however, the denomination Kherwār or Kharwār is used to denote the common stock from which the Santāls, the Muṇḍārīs, the Hōs, etc., have sprung. It has already been mentioned in the general introduction to the Muṇḍā Family that some scholars have therefore proposed to call the whole family Kherwarian. It has also been pointed out that the Linguistic Survey has not adopted this use of the word Kherwarian because we have no right to infer that all Muṇḍā tribes have ever been called Kherwārs and because the family has already become known under other names.

The name Kherwārī will, in this Survey, be used to denote those Mundā dialects which used the word hār or some similar word for 'man.' It might also be called the Eastern Mundā language. The name Kol has also been applied to it, but this denomination is apt to give rise to ambiguity. In the first place, it is often used to denote all Mundā dialects, in the second place it often occurs as a denomination of a group of dialects which does not include Santālī, the most important dialect of the language in question. The name Kherwārī has been adopted in deference to the Santālī traditions and to those eminent scholars who have proposed to call the whole family Kherwarian. The name has the great advantage of being new so that it cannot easily be misunderstood. The close relation between all dialects which are comprised under the name Kherwārī has long been recognized, but, so far as I am aware, they are now for the first time classed together as one distinct form of Mundā language.

The Kherwārī language is spoken by more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ million of people from Bhagalpur and the Sonthal Parganas in the north to the Orissa Tributary States in the south, and from Morbhanj in the east to Sambalpur in the west. The details will be found below under the various dialects. According to local estimates made for the purposes of this Survey and the more accurate figures returned at the last Census, the number of speakers may be put down, respectively, as follows:—

		1	Name (of dia	lect.				Estimated number of speakers.	Census of 1901
Santālī						,			1,614,822	1,795,113
Muņdārī									406,524	460,744
Bhumij									79,078	111,304
Birhâr									1,234	526
Kōḍā									8,949	23,873
Ηō									383,126	371,860
Tūrī									3,727	3,880
Asuri									19,641	4,894
Korwā	•	•	•			•	•		20,227	16,442
							To	TAL	2,537,328	2,788,636

The most important form of Kherwārī is Santālī, and the principal features of the language will be described under the head of that dialect. It has two slightly different sub-dialects, Kārmālī and Māhlē, which connect Santālī with the Kol dialects proper, Muṇḍārī, Bhumij, Bīrhār, Kōḍā, and Hō. The remaining dialects, Tūrī, Asurī, and Korwā, are more closely related to Muṇḍārī than to Santālī. In some characteristics, however, they agree with the latter dialect as against the former. The Santāls, the Asurs, and the Korwās use the word Māñjhi as an honorific title to denote themselves. The name Māñjhi has been returned as denoting a dialect in Raigarh. It is a form of speech between Asurī and Korwā, and the figures will be shown under Asurī. Tūrī is more closely related to Muṇḍārī than are Asurī and Korwā. Korwā, on the other hand, may be considered as the link connecting Kherwārī with Khariā and the western and southern Muṇḍā dialects.

Santālī is the most important of all the Muṇḍā languages. About 57 per cent. of all Muṇḍās have been returned under that form of speech. The total number of speakers is about $1\frac{3}{4}$ million of people.

Santālī literally means 'the language of the Santāls.' 'Santāl' is the name applied by foreigners to the tribe which has given its name to the Sonthal Parganas. Santāl is, according to Mr. Skrefsrud, a corruption of Sāotāl or Sāotār, the common name of the tribe used by Bengalis. The forms Santāl and Sontāl are only used by natives who have come into contact with Europeans. He derives the name from Sãot in Midnapore where the tribe is supposed to have been settled for several generations. The 'Soontarrs' are mentioned as a wild and unlettered tribe as early as 1798.

Santāls call themselves $h\tilde{a}r-k\tilde{o}$, men, or $h\tilde{a}r$ $h\tilde{a}p\tilde{a}n$, man child. When asked about their name and caste they usually apply the title $M\tilde{a}njhi$, headman, to themselves. Their language has therefore sometimes been reported under various names such as $H\tilde{a}r$, $H\tilde{a}r$ $r\tilde{a}r$, i.e. the speech of the Hârs, $M\tilde{a}njhi$, and so forth. Outsiders often also use $Phars\bar{i}$ or $Pars\bar{i}^2$ as a denomination of this form of speech. In Murshidabad the language is locally known as $Jangal\bar{i}$, forest language, or $Pah\bar{a}ri\bar{a}$, mountain-language. In Bankura and Morbhanj it has been reported as $Th\bar{a}r$, i.e. language (that is 'the foreign language'), and in Bankura some speakers were returned in the Survey estimates under the head of $Kh\bar{e}r\bar{a}$ $Kar\bar{a}$. It is, however, now reported that no such dialect exists in the district. The so-called $kh\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ so of the Sonthal Parganas are related to the Jadopatias. They are semi-Hinduized aboriginals.

All these secondary names are based on misunderstandings or on considerations which have nothing to do with language. They will, therefore, be discarded in the following pages, and the language will be styled Santālī throughout.

According to Santālī traditions, the tribe was once united with what are now the Mundārīs, the Hōs, and other small tribes. They assert that in those old times they were called Kherwārs or Kharwārs. Their traditional tales contain allusions to old wanderings from the west. These wanderings have probably taken place in relatively modern time. According to Mr. Risley, it is clear that a large and important Santāl colony was once settled in parganas Chai and Champa in Hazaribagh. The same authority further remarks:

'A tradition is noticed by Colonel Dalton of an old fort in Chai occupied by one Jaura, a Santāl Raja, who destroyed himself and his family on hearing of the approach of a Muhammadan army under Sayyid Ibráhim Alí alias Malik Bayá, a general of Muhammad Tughlak's, who died in 1353. This tradition, so far as it refers to the existence of a Santāl fort in Chai Champa, is to some extent corroborated by the following passage from the legends of the Southern Santāls collected by the Rev. J. Phillips, and published in Appendix G. to Annals of Rural Bengal, ed. 1868:—"Dwelling there (in Chai Champa) they greatly multiplied. There were two gates, the Ahin gate and the Bāhini gate, to the fort of Chai Champa." If, moreover, the date of the taking of this fort by Ibráhim Alí were assumed to be about 1340 A.D., the subsequent migrations of which the tribal legends speak would fill up the time intervening between the departure of the Santāls from Chai Champa and their settlement in the present Santāl Parganās. Speaking generally, these recent migrations

¹ See the references given in Mr. Crooke's edition of Yule and Burnell's Hobson-Jobson.

² This word, which literally means 'Persian,' is used by speakers of Aryan languages all over Northern India to indicate a tongue which they do not understand. For instance, it is frequently applied to the secret argots of criminal tribes, much as we in England talk of 'Thieves' Latin.'

have been to the east, which is the direction they might prima facie have been expected to follow. The earliest settlements which Santāl tradition speaks of, those in Ahiri Pipri and Chai Champa, lie on the north-western frontier of the table-land of Hazaribagh and in the direct line of advance of the numerous Hindu immigrants from Behar. That the influx of Hindus has in fact driven the Santāls eastward is beyond doubt, and the line which they are known to have followed in their retreat corresponds on the whole with that attributed to them in their tribal legends.'

From Hazaribagh the Santāls are stated to have wandered into Manbhum, and, further, into the Sonthal Parganas.

This explanation of the traditional legends agrees well with the fact that scattered settlements of Santāls are still found all over Hazaribagh. Mr. Skrefsrud, it is true, thinks that the traditionary wanderings have taken place in a very remote past. According to him they imply an old immigration into India from the north-west while Colonel Dalton explains them as referring to an ancient wandering from Assam. A good deal of the traditionary accounts are concerned with the time previous to the stay at Chae Champa. All places in which they are supposed to have lived, from Hihīrī Pipīrī to their present home, are mentioned, and also some names from the most remote antiquity; compare p. 64 below. They are always repeated at the Chāchō chhātiār, the ceremony performed when a person is admitted as a member of grown up society.

It seems to me that Mr. Risley is right in refusing to attach high antiquity to the Santāl traditions. They are apparently influenced from various sources.²

Some remarks about the position of the Munda race will be found in the general introduction to this volume. See above, p. 5. In this place we are only concerned with the actual habitat of the Santāls.

Santālī is spoken over a strip of country extending for about 300 miles from the Ganges in the north to the Baitarani in the south. It comprises the south of Bhagalpur and Monghyr; the west of Birbhum and Burdwan; almost the whole of Bankura; the western corner of Midnapore; the greater portion of Morbhanj and Nilgiri; the north-west of Balasore; the north-east of Keonjhar; Dalbhum; Sarai Kala; Kharsawan; Manbhum; the Sonthal Parganas, and the east of Hazaribagh. There are further scattered settlements in the south-west of Murshidabad, in the central parts of the 24-Parganas, in the jungles in the south of Dinajpur and the adjoining tracts of Malda, Rajshahi, and Bogra, and in the south-west of Rangpur. Non-resident immigrants have further brought the language to Jalpaiguri and to Assam, where the Santāls are occupied as coolies in the tea-gardens.

Santālī is nowhere the only language, and only in the Sonthal Parganas is it the principal one. Minor Mundā dialects are found side by side with Santālī, and Aryan

¹ According to local tradition Kherwars ruled in comparatively modern times so far north as the district of Gayā. In the south of that district there are several old forts still attributed to the 'Kol Rājās.' See also the Rev. F. Hahn, on Dravidian and Kolarian Place names, in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxxii (1903), Pt. III., pp. 91 and ff.

² Mr. Risley has drawn attention to the fact that the supreme god *Thakur* of the Santāl traditions bears a Hindi name. The Aryan origin of the word Thakur has been doubted, but no other possible derivation has been proposed. The word occurs in late Sanskrit in the form *thakkura*. The form *thakkura* shows that the word has been borrowed from Prākrit. It has almost the same signification as *sthavira*, and is used as a respectful title. It should be derived from the base *sthā*, which in Prākrit sometimes forms the present *thakkaī*. The cerebral *th* does not make this explanation improbable. Marāthi *thāk²nō* shows that a Prākrit present *thakkaī* must have existed. Similarly, a form *thēra* exists in addition to *thera*, the Prākrit equivalent of *sthavira*.

tribes have, generally speaking, occupied the plains, just as the Santāls themselves have formerly ousted the Malto tribe from the lowlands and valleys and have confined them to the higher lands and the hills.

Santālī is a remarkably uniform language. There are only two dialects, and even these do not differ much from the standard form of speech.

They are the so-called Kārmālī, spoken by the Kâlhä tribe in the Sonthal Parganas, Manbhum and Hazaribagh, and the dialect of the Māhlēs in the central and southern portion of the Sonthal Parganas and the adjoining parts of Birbhum and Manbhum. Both will be separately dealt with below.

Santālī has, to some extent, been influenced by the neighbouring Aryan languages. This influence is, however, mainly confined to the vocabulary, though we can also see how Aryan suffixes and Aryan syntax are beginning to make themselves felt, and some of the most usual postpositions are perhaps Aryan. Broadly speaking, however, the structure and the general character of the language has remained unchanged.

Bihārī is the Aryan language which has most largely influenced Santālī. In the east the language has now begun to come under the spell of Bengali, and in the south the influence of Oriyā is traceable. The different sources from which words have been borrowed influence to some extent the form in which they are adopted. Thus the short a is retained in words borrowed from Bihārī, but is pronounced as an a in cases where the loan has been made from Bengali. In this way a slight difference is produced in the Santālī of the Bengali districts and that spoken in places where Bihārī is the principal Aryan language. The influence of Bengali is of a relatively modern date. On the other hand, it has of late years been gradually spreading.

This difference between Bengali-Santālī and Bihārī-Santālī, which only exists in a limited part of the vocabulary, cannot be seen from the specimens which follow. It would be necessary to have far more materials for comparison in order to account for it. The loss is not, however, great, the real language being the same in both cases.

The purest Santālī is spoken in the north, especially in the Sonthal Parganas and in Manbhum. The dialect spoken in Midnapore, Balasore, Singbhum, and the Orissa Tributary States is more mixed and shows signs of gradually yielding to Aryan influence.

The number of speakers in those districts where Santālī is spoken as a vernacular

this

Normalism of account		has	be	en	estim	ated	as	follo	ws	for	the	purposes of
Number of speak	ers.	Sur	ve v	;								
Burdwan												21,368
Birbhum												41,700
Bankura											٠.	96,911
Midnapore												118,062
Murshidabad												7,795
Monghyr												7,000
Bhagalpur												50,063
Sonthal Parg	ganas								Ī	į.		626,254
Balasore							:		- 5		•	893
Hazaribagh					·	·	:		:	•		72,535
Manbhum					·	•			•	•	•	144,820
Singbhum				- 5	· .	•	:	•	•	•	•	
	٠.		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	59,212
								Car	ried	over		1,246,613

								B	ough	forwa	ard	1,246,613
Keonjhar			•									11,730
Morbhanj		•			[•	•	•					154,806
Nilgiri				•	[•	•						1,865
Sarai Kala				•					•	•		17,815
Kharsawan					•	•				•		2,957
Bonai	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	39
										То	TAL	1,435,825

According to local estimates Santālī was further spoken abroad in the following districts:—

TICL	8:											
	Bengal Presidency	7—					,					
	24-Parganas										. 18,868	
	Rajshahi .										. 5,652	
	Dinajpur .										. 28,148	
	Jalpaiguri										. 3,275	
	Rangpur .										905	
	Bogra .										4,910	
•	Malda .										. 25,000	
	Sarguja .										. 16	100
	-											86,774
	Assam—			,			-		•			
	Cachar Plain	в.						• "			. 2,162	
	Sylhet .										. 3,950	
	Goalpara .										. 1,000	
	Kamrup .										. 140	
	Darrang .										. 1,900	
	Nowgong .										. 1,100	
	Sibsagar .										. 4,250	
	Lakhimpur										. 4,700	
	. •											19,202
								To	TAL		-	105,976
										1070	-	
$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y}$	adding these	figu	res we	arri	ve at	the	follo	wing	gran	id to	tal for the	language :-
	Santālī spoke	n at	home .								1,435,825	0079 NTV N
	Santālī spoke										105,976	
							10,50					

The speakers in the 24-Parganas are immigrant settlers, mainly from Hazaribagh. Those in Rajshahi are immigrant settlers in the north, and those in Dinajpur immigrant settlers in the south. In Bogra the Santāls are found as immigrant settlers in the west. In Malda, where they have settled in the east, they have only been in the district for about 20 years. The speakers in the other district are stated to be non-resident immigrants.

TOTAL

1,541,801

The above figures include the speakers of the so-called Khērā Karā in Bankura (429), of the so-called Mānjhī in Keonjhar (26) and Morbhanj (1,551), of the so-called Thār in Bankura (123) and Morbhanj (1,306), and 39 speakers from the Bonai State who were reported to speak Tār, but regarding whom no further information has been available. Regarding the so-called Mānjhī of the Raigarh State see below pp. 145 and ff.

The revised figures for the two Santālī dialects Kārmālī and Māhlē will be given in detail later on. The total number of speakers has been put down at 44,060 for Kārmālī and 28,961 for Māhlē. The grand total for Santālī is accordingly as follows:—

									_	-	
Santālī pro	per			•							1,541,801
Kārmālī	•		•	•			•				44,060
Māhlē .	•	•		•	•					•	28,961
									To	TAL	1,614,822

At the last Census, of 1901, Santālī was returned from the following districts:-

A. SANTĀLĪ PROPER.

				£	r. 9	ANTALI	PROPI	ER.			
Bengal Preside	ency-	_									
Burdwan		•									. 39,428
Birbhum											. 47,455
Bankura	•										. 98,521
Midnapore											.146,018
Hooghly											. 9,061
Howrah											. 205
24-Pargan	as										. 3,655
Calcutta											. 4
Nadia											. 81
Murshidab	ad										. 12,508
Jessore											. 69
Khulna											. 83
Rajshahi											. 2,003
Dinajpur										- 0	. 64,767
Jalpaiguri						:	•		•	•	. 12,164
Darjeeling				-	į.			•	•	•	7 000
Rangpur		:	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	- 00-
Bogra	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. •	
Pabna	•	•	•		•	•	•	•		•	. 2,357
Dacca	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 252
Faridpur	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	, 2
	•	•		•	•			•	•.		. 8
Chittagon			. •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 409
Chittagon		II Trac	ts	•	•	•	•	•			. 74
Darbhang	ъ.	•	•	•			•	•	•		. 19
Monghyr	•	•		•	•						. 12,461
Bhagalpur	•		•				•	•			. 17,396
Purnea	•	•	•	•	•		•				. 5,315
Malda	•										. 37,398
Sonthal P	arga	nas									.648,847
Cuttack											. 1
Balasore											. 8,257
Puri .											. 3
Hazaribag	h										. 78,358
Ranchi											. 425
Palamau										ì	. 362
Manbhum				2000							. 181,687
Singbhum								•	•	•	. 74,595
Kuch Bih					800	2353	0			·	. 21
Orissa Tri		v Stat	es	•	•	•	•	•	•	·	.192,284
Chota Na	mur	Tribut	orv !	States	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 20,884
Hill Tippe	LB Forr	- LIVUI	ary i	cares	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 20,884
r.pp		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	. 107

					Broug	ght fo	rward		1.7	24,227	
A	ssam—								-,.	,	
	Cachar Plains									2,147	
	Sylhet .		٠.				•			4,241	
	Goalpara .	•								1,950	
	Kamrup .									426	
	Darrang .									2,890	
	Nowgong .					٠,				668	
	Sibsagar .									9,579	
	Lakhimpur	•								7,968	
	Lushai Hills									190	
	North Cachar									52	
	Naga Hills									12	
	Khasi and Jain	tia	$_{ m Hills}$							5	
	Manipur .	•	•							1	
							TOTAL	Assani		_	30,129
в.	Kārmālī.										17,342
C.	Māhlē .										18,801
											10,001
								TOTAL		. 1	,790.499

To this total must probably be added 4,614 speakers of Jangli who were returned from Assam. This would bring the total up to 1,795,113.

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Santālī does not possess a written literature, but traditional legends are current among the people. Mr. Skrefsrud has collected many of them from the mouth of Kolean, an old Santāl sage. This collection, the so-called hapram-ko-reak' katha, the Tales of the Ancestors, has been published in 1887. See authorities above.

Santālī has been reduced to writing by European missionaries, and the Roman character has commonly been used in writing it. There are two Santālī translations of the New Testament. The Old Testament has lately been translated by the Rev. P.O. Bodding.

Santālī is a comparatively well known language. Mr. Skrefsrud's grammar, published in 1873, is still the leading authority, and unsurpassed in correctness and consistent orthography. It is arranged after the pattern of Indo-European grammars, and some parts of it, e.g. the conjugation of verbs, has become unnecessarily long and complicated. Mr. Heuman's grammatical sketch is entirely based on Mr. Skrefsrud's grammar, but is much simpler.

I shall in the following pages make a few remarks on Santālī. For further details the student is referred to the authorities mentioned above, and especially to the grammars of Messrs. Skrefsrud and Heuman.

Pronunciation.—Santālī has a richly developed system of vowels. All the vowels can be short as well as long. Long vowels are not marked in the best specimens, which follow the system of spelling agreed upon by the missionaries on the field. I have not therefore, made any attempt at introducing separate signs for them. Some specimens distinguish between short and long vowels, but in a very arbitrary way. Santālī has, in such specimens, usually been seen through Bengali spectacles. Thus the long \hat{a} , the sound of a in 'all', is written a, the short a of the German 'mann' occurs as \bar{a} , and so forth.

No fixed rules can be given with regard to the quantity of vowels. Short vowels are frequently lengthened when the meaning is emphasized; thus, $g\hat{a}ch'$ -en- \bar{a} -e, he died, becomes $g\hat{a}ch'$ -en- \bar{a} -e with a very much lengthened \hat{a} , if the loss and grief is emphasized. The vowels of monosyllabic words are usually long if the word does not end in a semiconsonant, in which case it is usually short. Thus $\tilde{n}\bar{a}l$, see; $h\hat{a}r$, man; $\tilde{n}um$, name; and likewise also $\bar{a}p'$, to alight; $\bar{a}t'$, to lose; but mit', one; rak', call, and so forth. The long vowel of monosyllables is shortened when an accented syllable is added; thus, $\tilde{n}\bar{a}l$, see, passive base $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}l\hat{a}k'$; $d\bar{a}l$, strike, reciprocal base $dap\bar{a}l$.

The vowels are pronounced as on the continent of Europe.

A is the sound of a in father and the corresponding short sound. I and u have the sounds of i in 'pin,' 'police,' and of u in 'full,' 'prune,' respectively.

E and o have two sounds each. E is the sound of either of the es in the German 'Segen'; \ddot{a} that of \ddot{a} in the German 'Nähe.' O has the sound of either of the os in 'promote,' and \acute{a} that of a in 'all.' E and \ddot{a} , o and \acute{a} , respectively, are only distinguished in the specimens received from Messrs. Skrefsrud and Bodding. I have distinguished them throughout in accordance with the decisions of a conference of Santāl missionaries held some four years ago in order to decide upon the printing of Mr. Bodding's translation of the Old Testament. With regard to orthography it was agreed upon to distinguish between the open (\ddot{a} and \dot{a}) and closed (e and o) vowel sounds in the bases of words, but not in suffixes and personal pronouns. This practice has been followed in the translations of the Bible issued by the Scandinavian Mission.

All the vowels can be nasalised and are then marked in the usual way, \tilde{a} , \tilde{e} , \tilde{i} , and so forth.

There is still another set of vowels which Mr. Skrefsrud calls neutral and marks by putting a dot under the vowel, thus a, e, i, o, u. They may be compared with the short indistinct vowel sound which English r assumes in words such as 'here,' with the final e in German 'Ruhe,' and with the short e in French 'quatre-vingt.' The most common of these sounds, which partly play a prominent rôle in the language, is the neutral a. It is the only one which is regularly expressed in writing. It has a deep guttural sound. The neutral a and a are only used as the second component of diphthongs beginning with a. The neutral vowels are apparently always due to the influence of an a or a in the preceding or following syllable. The influence of those sounds is even felt if they have themselves disappeared; compare k o l, old k o l, from Hindi k o l, cuckoo.

The diphthongs are numerous, viz., ae, ao, oi, au, ao, ia, io, iu, ae, oa, oe, ua, ui.

Harmonic Sequence.—There is a distinct tendency in Santālī to approach the sound of vowels in consecutive syllables to each other. The vowel affected by this tendency is sometimes the preceding and sometimes the following one. This tendency is known under the name of harmonic sequence, and it is familiar as occurring also in other languages. For instance it is a very characteristic feature of the Ural-Altaic forms of speech. Compare above, p. 22.

In Santālī the facts are as follows:-

I and u neutralize all vowels which come under their influence, but instead of the short or long a, e, o, thus produced, we often find short or long e, i, u, respectively. Thus, $h\bar{u}\bar{a}$ $huk\bar{a}$ and $h\bar{u}\bar{e}$ $huk\bar{e}$, jackal's cry; $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, boy; $k\bar{u}r\bar{i}$, instead of $k\bar{o}r\bar{i}$, girl: parh-ao, read, but bujh-au, understand: kala, deaf; fem. kali: ach'-ak', his; $i\bar{n}$ -ak', my: ba-ko, not they; ba- \bar{n} , from ba- $i\bar{n}$, not I, and so forth. If an a, e, or o must be retained in the neighbourhood of an i or u, those latter sounds must be changed; thus, $d\bar{a}l$ - $e\bar{n}$ - $e\bar{n}$ - $e\bar{n}$ instead of $d\bar{a}l$ - $e\bar{n}$ - $e\bar{n}$ - $e\bar{n}$, he is striking me.

When followed by a or o, e is generally substituted for \ddot{a} and o for \dot{a} in the demonstrative bases $\ddot{a}n$, this; $\dot{a}n$, that. Compare $\ddot{a}n-t\ddot{a}$, just there; but en-ka, just so; en-ko, these: $\dot{a}n-t\ddot{a}$, there; but on-ka, thus. The pronominal bases $\ddot{a}n$, $\dot{a}n$ accordingly become en, on, respectively, and they are further replaced by in, un, respectively, in words such as in-i, this very; un-i, this. Compare the preceding rule. In a similar way \dot{e} is substituted for the \ddot{a} in the suffix $r\ddot{a}$, in the genitive suffix $r\dot{e}ak$, etc.

The vowels of dissyllabic words will, accordingly, usually be found to agree with each other. If one of the syllables contains an i or u, the other usually contains a neutral or closed (e or o) vowel, and vice versa. If one of the syllables contains an a or á, the other syllable cannot as a rule contain an e or o, and vice versá. Thus the passive suffix ok' becomes dk' after \ddot{a} and \dot{a} . Compare dal-ok', to be struck; but $s\ddot{a}n-dk'$, to go. In some isolated cases this ok' becomes uk' after i and u; thus, hij-uk', come; guj-uk', die. In a similar way, the pronominal suffix \ddot{a} , he, she, becomes e after a or o, and i(originally e or i) after a or u; thus, dal-a-e, he strikes; handua-i utu-let'-a, bambooshoots-she curried, she has made curry of bamboo shoots. There are many exceptions to these rules, especially when the vowels of both syllables are long, and in words recently borrowed from Bengali or Bihārī; thus, ārā, nine; sādām, horse; sirā sārā, bruised, bloody; nārkār, cocoa, etc. It should further be remarked that no hiatus and no diphthong in closed syllables is allowed to stand. Euphonic consonants are inserted between concurrent vowels, and diphthongs in closed syllables are contracted into one vowel or transformed into two syllables. Thus the English word 'mile' is pronounced māl and mayel. Compare further uni-ge-y-ä män-et'-a, he-he says, etc. is very commonly inserted by women before suffixes; thus, lai-w-ad-e-a, said to him.

Consonants.—Santālī possesses the same sets of consonants as Hindī, viz., four gutturals, four palatals, four cerebrals, four dentals, and four labials, with the corresponding nasals. They are written and pronounced as in Hindi. Two consecutive syllables cannot begin with an aspirated letter. From jhich', open, we must therefore form jhi-jich'-ich', one who opens. There is further a y, an r, a cerebral r, an l, a v, a w, an s, an h, and four sounds which have been called semi-consonants, and are written k', ch', t', and p', respectively. They are pronounced by sharply inhaling the breath and putting the tongue in the position occupied when pronouncing k, So far their formation is, each to each, like that of ch, t, and p, respectively. an ordinary k, ch, t, p. While, however, the final pronunciation of these latter sounds is effected in such a way that the breath in passing out strikes against the points of contact, the contact is, in the case of the semi-consonants, released before the breath passes out, and in this way an abrupt sound is produced. It apparently closely resembles the so-called abrupt tone of many Indo-Chinese languages, which has sometimes been described as the formation of a consonant in the mouth without finally pronouncing it. Phonetically the semi-consonants can be described as checked consonants, without the off-glide.

Instead of passing out through the mouth the breath is sometimes emitted through the nose, and the semi-consonants then assume something of the sound of nasals. We therefore often find them written n, n, and m, respectively.

The semi-consonant k' is pronounced farther back in the throat than the consonant k. The semi-consonants are a characteristic feature of all Munda languages. They have been marked in various ways. Thus we very often find a' and ak for ak'; ai and ae, a:, and ai: for ack', and so forth. I have followed Mr. Skrefsrud in writing k', ck', t', p', respectively.

The final semi-consonants of verbal bases are changed to the corresponding soft consonants according to certain laws. A semi-consonant at the end of a base is thus changed in the future and in the imperative if the verb is used in a transitive sense and if there is no object infix; further before the infixes in, tin and e, tae, and the passive

suffix ok'. The k' of the inanimate suffix ak' is never changed; the k' of the passive suffix ok' only in the intensive form og-ok'. The final t' of verbal suffixes becomes d before animate infixes beginning with a vowel. There is further now a tendency, especially in the language of men, to substitute d for t' before the categorical a. Thus, mak', cut, $m\bar{a}g$ - \bar{a} -e, he will cut; $m\bar{a}g$ -e- \bar{a} -e, he cuts him; $m\bar{a}g$ - $ti\bar{n}$ - $m\bar{e}$, cut mine; $j\bar{a}m\bar{a}n$ - \bar{a} $m\bar{a}g$, that he may cut; mak'- $k\bar{o}$ -m, cut them; mak'-ak'- $m\bar{e}$, cut at it; mak'- $a\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{e}$, cut for him; mak'-et'-a-e or mak'-ed-a-e, he cuts; gitich', lay down; gitij-e- $p\bar{a}$, lay him down; chet', learn, imperative ched- $m\bar{a}$, durup', place, durub- $i\bar{n}$ - $m\bar{a}$, place me.

In such verbs as are both transitive and intransitive, the semi-consonant is always left unchanged when the verb is used in an intransitive sense. Thus beret'-me, stand

up; but bered-me, raise up; beret'-ā-ñ, I shall arise; bered-ā-ñ, I shall raise.

Accent.—In words of two syllables the accent usually rests on the first. Thus $s\acute{e}rma$, year. The final syllable is, however, accented when it ends in a semi-consonant, when the last syllable is long and the first short, when the word ends in \tilde{n} , and when it is a reduplicated or reflexive monosyllabic base. Thus, $s\ddot{a}n\acute{a}k'$, go: $ag\acute{a}$, bring; $teh\acute{e}\tilde{n}$, to-day; $da\cdot d\acute{a}l$ and $da-p\acute{a}l$, the intensive and reciprocal bases of $d\acute{a}l$, strike. There are many exceptions to the general rule, but we have no detailed information about the matter.

Affixes.—Santālī makes use of numerous affixes of various kinds, prefixes, infixes, and suffixes. Most of them play a rôle in what corresponds to the inflexional system of Indo-European languages, and many such affixes will be mentioned in what follows. In this place I shall only mention a few affixes which are used in the formation of words.

A prefix a is sometimes used to form a kind of causative; thus, a- $s\ddot{a}n$, to lead about from $s\ddot{a}n$, go; a- $n\ddot{u}$, to give to drink, from $n\ddot{u}$, drink; a- $j\dot{a}$, to give to eat, from $j\dot{a}m$, eat. Compare the a of pronominal suffixes denoting the indirect object.

There are several infixes in use.

A k' is inserted after the first vowel of a word. The vowel is, in monosyllabic words, repeated after the k'. It is usually also perceptible, though very faintly sounded, in other words, especially such as begin with a vowel. In this way intensives are formed from verbs beginning with vowels and from some which begin with a consonant; thus, $\hat{a}l$, write, intensive $\hat{a}k'\hat{a}l$; $ag\bar{u}$, bring, intensive $ak'g\bar{u}$; benao, make, intensive bek'nao. Distributives are similarly formed from some numerals beginning with vowels; thus, $ek'e\bar{a}e$, seven each, from $\bar{e}\bar{a}e$, seven; $ik'r\bar{a}l$, eight each, from $ir\bar{a}l$, eight. Finally, k' is often inserted in demonstrative pronouns beginning with an n in order to intensify their meaning. The vowel of the base is then always nasalized. Thus, nui, this man here, $n\bar{u}k'\bar{u}i$, just this man here.

An infix p is used to form collective nouns and reciprocal verbs. Thus, manjhi, headman; mannjhi, a collection of village headmen; dal, strike; dapal, strike each other. In a few cases it is difficult to define the exact meaning of this infix. Compare han and han, child. The latter form is properly collective.

An n is often infixed after the first vowel of a word, the vowel being also repeated after n. In this way collective numerals and some nouns are formed. Thus, bar, two; ba-na-r, both; $p\ddot{a}$, three; $p\ddot{a}-n\ddot{a}$, all the three; pon, four; po-no-n, all four; dapal, to cover; da-na-pal, a cover; muchat and mu-nu-chat, end, termination.

Another infix t is inserted in the same way as n in order to form nouns from verbs; thus, $\tilde{n}u$ -tu-m, name, from $\tilde{n}um$, to name; \ddot{a} - $t\acute{a}$ - $h\acute{a}p$, beginning, from $\ddot{a}h\acute{a}p$, begin.

Such infixes play a great rôle in the formation of Santālī words, and their importance has apparently been still greater in earlier stages of the language. Compare hāpāl and hārāl, man; Asurī sodor, arrive, approach, Santālī sor, near, come near. Santālī and the Mundā family generally, in this respect, agree with the Mon-Khmēr languages, Sakei, Semang, etc.

Inflexional system.—The vocabulary of Santālī and connected forms of speech cannot be sub-divided into the same classes of words as in the case of Indo-European languages. Every word can perform the function of a verb, and every verbal form can, according to circumstances, be considered as a noun, an adjective or a verb. The relation of one word to the others in a sentence is indicated by means of particles, the original meaning of which can no more be ascertained. Such particles can be compared with the suffixes, postpositions, and terminations of other languages. It would therefore be necessary to introduce new terms in order to correctly describe the grammatical system of Santālī. The Linguistic Survey, however, has a double aim. It collects the philological facts and classes them for further research, and it also serves the practical purpose of furnishing introductions to the various languages of India. It has therefore been found convenient to adhere to the grammatical terminology customary for other languages. This practice will also be followed in dealing with the Munda dialects. It must, however, be clearly understood that this method of dealing with these forms of speech is purely conventional and does not exactly correspond to true state of affairs. It is really correct to say only that a certain word performs the function of a noun, of an adjective, or of a verb, instead of saying that it is a noun, an adjective, or a verb. The grammatical remarks which follow will, nevertheless, for the sake of convenience, be arranged under the well-known headings of noun, adjective, verb, and so forth.

There is only one declension, and this is effected by means of postpositions.

These postpositions were perhaps originally independent words, but are now no more used as such.

Gender.—There are two genders, one denoting all animate nouns, the other comprising all inanimate objects. The natural gender, on the other hand, does not play any rôle in the inflexion of nouns. It is indicated by using different words or by prefixing some word meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, hārāl, man; māejīu, woman: āndiā kūl, a male tiger; ēngā kūl, a female tiger.

Some few bases ending in a have a corresponding feminine form ending in i. Thus, $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, boy; $k\bar{u}r\bar{i}$, girl: $k\tilde{u}r\bar{u}$, blind; fem. $k\bar{a}r\bar{i}$. Such couplets are, however, clearly borrowed from Aryan languages.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the dual is $k\bar{\imath}n$, and that of the plural $k\bar{o}$. Thus, $h\bar{a}r-k\bar{\imath}n$, two men; $h\bar{a}r-k\bar{o}$, men. The suffix of the plural is, however, often dispensed with, and the mere base is used as a collective singular. On the other hand, the plural suffix is sometimes used in an indefinite sense; thus, $h\bar{a}r-k\bar{o}$ raput'-akat'- \bar{a} , men, i.e. somebody has broken in; $un-t\bar{e}$, by that time; $un-k\bar{o}-t\bar{e}$, by about that time.

Case.—Real cases, such as denote the relation of the noun to a verb, do not exist in Santālī. The direct and indirect object are indicated in the verb, and there is accordingly no such case as a dative or an accusative.

Local and causal relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $t\ddot{a}$, to, in, into, by means of; $r\ddot{a}$, in, within; lagit, lagat, for, for the sake of; $kh\dot{a}n$, $kh\dot{a}ch$, from; $th\ddot{a}n$, $th\ddot{a}ch$, near, and so forth.

The genitive is formed by adding $r\ddot{a}n$, when the governing noun is of the animate gender, and ak', an, $r\ddot{e}ak'$ or $r\ddot{e}an'$ (or, seldom, $r\ddot{e}nak'$, $r\ddot{e}nan'$), if it is an inanimate noun. Thus, $\ddot{o}rak' - r\ddot{a}n$ $kis\ddot{a}r$, the master of the house; $p\ddot{a}$ $m\ddot{a}h\ddot{a}-r\ddot{e}ak'$ kami, three days' work.

The genitive is, in fact, an adjective, and it is derived from the base, by adding $r\ddot{a}$ -n, i.e. $r\ddot{a} + n$, or else ak, or $a\dot{n}$, with or without the postposition $r\ddot{a}$, in. $R\ddot{a}$ is sometimes also used alone as a genitive suffix. On the other hand, the forms $r\ddot{e}nak$ and $r\ddot{e}na\dot{n}$ mentioned above show that $r\ddot{a}n$ has formerly also been used before inaumate nouns.

Secondary nouns.—It has already been remarked that some nouns are formed by means of infixes. Several secondary nouns are also formed by adding suffixes. Thus a suffix ich', dual kin, plural ko, is used to form animate nouns, nouns of agency, and the like, while inanimate nouns are formed by the addition of ak', dual ak'kin, plural ak'-ko. Thus, hudiñ-ich', the small one; Paṇḍu-rän-ko, those of Paṇḍu, the sons of Paṇḍu; Paṇḍu-ak', that of Paṇḍu, Paṇḍu-ak'-reak'-ko, those things of that of Paṇḍu.

A very common suffix is tät' which is used as a kind of definite article, but also in order to form abstract nouns; thus, dare-tät', the tree; chalak'-tät', the going; marantät', greatness.

Adjectives do not change for gender, number, or case. They are, however, often defined by the suffixes ich', and ak' just mentioned. It is often simply a matter of convenience which word is considered as a noun, and which as an adjective. Thus we may say Pandu-rän hápán-kin, and Pandu-rän-kin hápán, Pandu's two sons. In the first case the genitive Pandu-rän is an adjective, in the second a noun is formed from it and the collective singular hápán, child, young, is added as an adjective.

Adjectives of possession are often formed by adding an; thus, dare-an, possessing strength; $h\ddot{a}r\ddot{a}l-an$, possessing a husband. An n can, similarly, be added to almost all words ending in a single vowel. In this way a kind of verbal adjective is formed; thus, eto-n dangra, a bullock fit to be broken in, from eto, to break in. It is perhaps the same n which occurs in abo-n, we; ka-n, is, and in rare forms such as $al\ddot{a}-n$, we; $ap\ddot{a}-n$, you; ako-n, they, etc.

Comparison.—Comparison is effected in the usual way by putting a postposition meaning 'from' after the compared noun. Thus, in-khan am-em maran-a, me-from thouthou big-art; jātā kora-ko-khan maran-ich'-dā nui kan-ge-a-e, all boys-from big-the this is, this is the biggest boy. Arhā, artāt', more; barti, more; utar, most, can also be added in order to indicate the higher or highest degree. Thus, uni arhā-ā maran-a, he is greater; uni-dā maran utar, he is greatest.

The numerals are given in the list of words. The higher numbers are counted in twenties; thus pon isi, eighty; mīrā isi or mit sae, hundred. Of late years, however, the Santāls have apparently begun to count in tens. Thus Mr. Heuman gives pā gāl or mit isi gāl, thirty; turui gāl or pā isi, sixty, and so on. This tendency is due to the influence of the schools. Numerals between the tens are often formed by adding khān, more, and kām, less; thus, gāl khān ponea, ten more four, fourteen; barea kām bar-isi, two less two-scores,

¹ Long vowels will not be separately marked in what follows. They have been distinguished in the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 240 and ff.

Pronouns.

thirty-eight. Numerals such as isi, twenty; sae, hundred; hajar, thousand, are, of course, borrowed.

Pronouns are, generally speaking, inflected like nouns in number and case.

Personal pronouns.—The personal pronouns have separate forms for the dual and the plural. The pronoun of the first person has, moreover, two forms each in the dual and in the plural, one excluding and one including the person addressed. Demonstrative pronouns are used as personal pronouns of the third person. There is also a pronoun meaning 'self,' which can be considered as a personal pronoun of the third person.

The full forms of these pronouns will be seen from the table which follows:—

		Sin mulan	D	ual.	Plurel.		
		Singular.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	
Ι.		iñ	alañ	ąliñ	abo, abon	alä (alän)	
Thou		am	abän		apä (apän)		
Self .		ach'		a-kin		ako	

Abon and abo, we, are both used when the person addressed is included. Abo is, however, the more intimate form.

The forms given in the table are the full accented forms and correspond to the French moi, toi, lui, in phrases like c'est moi, it is I. When the pronoun is used as subject without any stress on it, it is suffixed to the word immediately preceding the verb, or to the verb itself, if the latter stands alone. The suffixed forms are like the full forms without the initial a. The suffixed form for 'I' is $i\tilde{n}$, or after vowels \tilde{n} ; that for 'thou' $\ddot{a}m$, em, imperative $m\ddot{a}$, after vowels m, and that for 'he,' 'she' is \ddot{a} or e.

If the pronoun stands in case-relation to a verb, it is infixed in the verb itself. There are three sets of such infixes, one denoting the direct and one the indirect object, and a third denoting the genitive relation. The infixes of the direct object are like the pronominal suffixes; the dative infixes are formed from them by prefixing an a, and the genitive infixes by prefixing ta. Further details are shown in the following table:—

			Direct object.	Indirect object.	Genitive.
1st person	٠		(i)ñ; lan, liñ; bo, bon, lä	ạñ; alañ, ạliñ; abon, alä	tiň ; talaň, taliň, ta-bo, ta-bon, ta-lä
2nd person			mä; bän; pä	am; abän; apä	tam; ta-bän; ta-pä
3rd person		·	ä; kin; ko	ae; akin; ako	tae; tạ-kin; ta-ko

Forms such as $m\ddot{a}$, \ddot{a} , $b\ddot{a}n$, $l\ddot{a}$, etc., are, of course, changed to me e, etc., before or after an a.

There is, in addition to the above, also a dative infix ak' used with reference to inanimate nouns.

The following are instances of the use of these suffixes and infixes:—Hola barea gai-y-\vec{a} kiri\vec{n}-ket'-kin-a; yesterday two cows-he bought-them-two, yesterday he bought two cows; gar\vec{a}-am-a-\vec{n}, help-thee-shall-I, I shall help you; ti sab-ti\vec{n}-m\vec{a}, hand seizemy-thou, take my hand, and so forth.

The genitive affixes are frequently used after ordinary nouns; thus, orak'-tiñ, my house. It is, however, just as common to use the genitive or else the mere base of the personal pronoun as a possessive. Thus, iñ-rän hápán, iñ hápán, or hápán-iñ, my son.

Many words denoting relationship are always combined with personal suffixes, viz, \tilde{n} for the first, m for the second and t for the third person. Thus, $apu-\tilde{n}$, my father; apu-m, thy father; apa-t, his, or her father; $enga-\tilde{n}-\tilde{a}$ häch'-akan-talan-a, the mother of us two has come. The last instance shows that these suffixes do not change for number, the number being expressed in the verb.

There are no honorific pronouns, and most people are addressed with the pronoun am, thou. The dual of the first as well as of the second person is used between parents-in-law and children-in-law. A man and the wife of his younger brother and a man and his wife's elder sister observe the same custom. Thus, in Specimen II below, the son-in-law says to his mother-in-law, chet'-bän utu-akat'-a, what have you two (i.e. thou) made curry of, and the mother-in-law answers ona-ge-liñ utu-akat'-a, we two (i.e. I) have made curry of this. In a similar way the husband's parents address the wife's parents in the inclusive first person plural, and use the same number to denote themselves in conversation with them. The exclusive form and the second person plural are only used when it is required in order to avoid ambiguity; thus, durup'-pä sumdhi, sit down, my child's father-in-law.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Santālī possesses a rich variety of demonstrative pronouns. Some of them have different forms according to whether they refer to animate or inanimate objects, others are indeclinable in gender.

The former group ends in i, dual kin, plural ko, when referring to animate nouns, and a, dual akin, plural ako, if they refer to inanimate objects; thus nui, this person, this animal; noa, this thing.

We can distinguish three different bases an (un) and an (in) for the nearer, and an for the remoter objects. The difference between an and an is that the latter denotes identity, this same, just this.

The bases an(un) and an(in) have each three different forms, one referring to what is close at hand, the second to what is a little farther off but still near, the third to what is still farther off. The first is formed by transposing the vowel and consonant, the second is the unchanged base, and the third is formed by prefixing an h. A and u, a and a interchange according to the rules of harmonic sequence.

			Ren	note.	Nea	rer.	Nearest.			
			Animate.	Inanimate.	Animate.	Inanimate.	Animate.	Inanimate		
· ii	Sing.	-	hini	hina	ini	iną	ni	nia		
Buso än,	Dual Plural		hin-kin hen-ko	hiną-kin hina-ko	in-kin en-ko	ina-kin ina-ko	ni-kin ne-ko	nia-kin nia-ko		

		Ren	note.	Ne	arer.	Nearest.	
	5 143	Animate.	Inanimate.	Animate.	Inanimate.	Animate.	Inanimate
Base an, un	Sing. Dual Plural	huni hun-kin hon-ko	hona hona-kin hona-ko	uni un-kin on-ko	ona ona-kin ona-ko	nui nu-kin no-ko	noa noa-kin noa-ko
Base an	Sing. Daal Plural	hạni, hãi han-kin han-ko	hana hana-kin hana-ko			l.	

Forms such as ani, nai, etc., do not occur in Santālī, but are used in connected, forms of speech.

There is besides a set of lateral demonstratives, referring to something on the side. They are formed from the third group in the table by inserting an h after the initial n. Thus:—

			Base $\ddot{a}n$, in .	Base ûn, un.	Base an.
Animate	•	$\overline{\cdot}$	nhi, nhi-kin, nhe-ko	nhui, nhu-kin, nho-ko	nhậi, nhạ-kin, nha-ko
Inanimate			nhia, -kin, -ko	nhoa, -kin, -ko	nha, -kin, -ko

The form $nh\tilde{\alpha}i$, that there far off to the side, is derived from a non-existing $n\alpha i$; see above. Mr. Campbell gives $n\tilde{\alpha}i$, this, which contains the same nasalization as $nh\tilde{\alpha}i$.

All these pronouns are inflected like nouns. By means of the infix k' and nasalization of the vowel we may further form intensive demonstratives, which cannot be inflected in case. Compare the table which follows:—

er en forest le		Base ä		Base än,	n, in. Base an,		un.	Base	Base an.	
			_	Ordinary.	Lateral.	Ordinary.	Lateral.	Ordinary.	Lateral.	
Animate .				nīk'ī	nhĩk'ĩ	nũk'ũi	nhũk'ũi	Wanting	nhặk'ặi	
Inanimate .		•		$n ilde{a}k' ilde{a}$, - kin , - ko	nhãk'ã	nâk'ãe, -kin, ko	nhãk'âe	Wanting	$nh\widetilde{a}k'\widetilde{a}e$	

There are still two sets of pronouns referring to something which is seen or heard, respectively. They are not inflected in case, but the suffixes of number can be added. They all refer to inanimate nouns, those referring to what is heard are also, in the dual and plural, used to denote animate beings. Compare the table which follows:—

	Base	ün, in.	Base	ân, un.	Base an.	
•)	Near.	Remote.	Near.	Remote.	Near.	Remote.
Things seen .	änä	hänä	ânä	hânä	anä	hanä, hãe
Things heard	ätä	hätä	âtä	hátā	atä	hatä

From these bases are formed secondary pronouns by adding anan, anak', anach', etc. for inanimate objects, and anich' for animate nouns. Thus, ana-anach', that thing you see there close at hand, just that; ata-anich', that person you hear there close at hand.

The pronominal bases are also used alone in adverbs and compounds; thus, $n\hat{a}$ - $t\hat{a}$, here; $\hat{a}n$ - $t\hat{a}$, there; $\hat{a}n$ - $t\hat{a}$, on that side, and so on.

Interrogative pronouns.—Ákâe, who? chele, of what kind? Both refer to animate nouns. Inanimate are oka, which? chet', what?

Relative pronouns.—There are no relative pronouns. Verbal adjectives are used instead. The pronoun ánä is often used as a kind of relative. Another demonstrative pronoun must, however, be added in case the relative refers to an animate being, and the verbal adjective is used instead of a finite tense. Thus, ánä uni hola-m galmarao-ad-e mañjhi uni-rän hápán teheñ-ä gách'-en-a, that yesterday-thou talked-to-him headman his son to-day-he died, the son of the headman you talked to yesterday has died to-day. The interrogative pronouns ákáe and oka, with or without a prefixed ánä, are also frequently used as a substitute for the relative.

The verb is the most characteristic feature of Santālī grammar. Strictly speaking, there is no real verb as distinct from the other classes of Verbs. words. Every independent word can perform the function of a verb, and every verbal form can, in its turn, be used as a noun or an adjective. Thus hár is 'a man,' and maran is 'big.' 'The man is big' can be translated hár-ā maran-a. $H\tilde{a}$ is 'yes,' and ket' is a suffix of the past time; $h\tilde{a}$ -ket'-a means 'said yes.' Compare hár-ked-e-a-e, he made a man of him; iñ-rän-ked-e-a-e, he made him mine, and so on. On the other hand, dal-ket is the base of the past tense of the verb dal, strike. It can also be used as a noun or as an adjective; thus, dal-ket'-ko, those who struck; dalket' hár, the struck having man, the man who struck. In dealing with words performing the functions of verbs it will therefore be necessary to consider the base of each of the various tenses as an indifferent word which can, according to circumstances, be used as a noun, an adjective, or a verb, but which is in reality none of any of them. Each denotes simply the root meaning as modified by time. We shall hereafter speak of such bases as inflexional bases.

The categorical a.—When used as verbs these inflexional bases correspond to the tenses of other languages. They are formed by agglutination, i.e. by suffixing certain elements to the unchanged root. Such a compound consisting of the root and a tense-suffix cannot as such be used in the function of a verb in an independent sentence, because it only gives the idea of an action in such and such time without adding whether this action really takes place. It is therefore necessary to assert the reality of the action and this is done by means of a suffixed a which at once changes the inflexional base to a finite tense. Thus, dal-ket'-a, somebody struck. This a has been called by Mr. Boxwell the categorical a, and it is of the greatest importance in Santālī grammar. By simply adding this a any word can be turned into a verb.

The use of the categorical a is not regulated according to the principles of Indo-European languages, though it corresponds, to a certain extent, to the indicative mood of Latin, etc. It is not used in subjunctive and relative clauses, and on the whole its use is restricted to those sentences in which the action indicated by the verb has

independent reality. Compare jähänak'-ä met-apä, whatever he may tell you; chalak'-pä, go ye; jähä-leka-tä bạiri alo-ko har-ko, in order that the enemies may not oust them; khajuk alo-e dag, if only he does not rain; dar-ket'-ko-e män-et'-a, fled-having-they-he says, he says that they have fled. In all such cases the action of the verb has a reality which is only conditional or which is connected with other actions, and the categorical a is, accordingly, not added. On the other hand in a sentence such as añjám-ket'-a-ñ játá-ko sän-akan-a män-tä, heard-I, 'all-they gone-are,' saying, i.e. I have heard that they are all gone, the sentence játá-ko sän-akan-a, all are gone, has been turned into an independent one by its introduction as a direct statement by way of quotation. The categorical a cannot, therefore, be omitted.

Auxiliaries and pronominal infixes.—A verbal form in Santāli thus consists of an inflexional base and the categorical a. In compound tenses the auxiliary verbal form is inserted between the two. Thus the copula or verb substantive is kan, past taha-kan. If we add those forms to dal-et', striking, we can form a present definite and an imperfect; thus dal-et'-kan-a, is striking; dal-et'-taha-kan-a, was striking. Such forms are complete according to our grammatical ideas. In Santālī, however, this is often not the case. If the action of the verb has an indirect or direct object, this must be indicated in the verb by means of the pronominal infixes, which must be inserted between the inflexional base and the categorical a, or, if an auxiliary verb is added, between it and the inflexional base. The same is the case if the object of an action belongs to somebody. The genitive infix follows the infix of the direct or indirect object. Thus, dal-ked-e-taea, (he) struck-him-his, he struck him who belonged to him. The genitive infix can also refer to the subject, and in this way we occasionally find a double genitive suffix; thus, gách'-en-tiñ-a-e, died mine he, he who belongs to me died; hâpán-iñ-e dal-ket'-ta-ko-tiñ-a, son-my-he struck-theirs-mine, my son who belongs to me struck theirs. Such constructions are however very rare. Similarly if we want to say 'he struck the boy 'we must first call to mind the ideas of 'he' 'boy' and 'a beating in the past.' We must next add the infix of the object to the inflexional base. Lastly, the categorical a is added and shows that the picture thus drawn up has real existence. Thus uni kora-e dal-ked-e-a, he boy-he struck him. Compare ini hapan-a met-ad-e-a, that very son-he said-to-him, he said to the son.

Voices.—The Santālī verb further has separate forms for the active voice, the passive or direct middle voice, and the indirect middle voice. It is therefore to be expected that it presents a somewhat complicated aspect. It is, however, quite regular throughout, and once the mind becomes accustomed to these peculiarities, they will not present any difficulty to the understanding.

Conjugational bases.—The root of the verb remains unchanged through all tenses. It can, however, also be modified in various ways, and the modified root is made the base of a separate conjugation, the usual tense-suffixes being added. There are two such modifications in common use. The root can, in the first place, be simply repeated, and the resulting double-base denotes repeated or intensified action. Thus, dal, strike; dal-dal, strike repeatedly or hard. These forms are conjugated throughout all the tenses.

If only the two first letters are repeated, the resulting reduplicated base becomes a kind of intensive or rather conative; thus da-dal, to strike much; $ba-\tilde{n}$ $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}-\tilde{n}\tilde{a}l-a$, not-I see, I cannot see at all, I am blind, compared with $ba-\tilde{n}$ $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}l-a$, I don't see (this particular

thing). If the verb begins with a vowel the infix k' is used instead of the reduplication. Thus, ak'gu, from agu, carry. The infix k' is also used in polysyllabic verbs beginning with a consonant; thus, bek'nao from benao, to make; hik'rick', from hirick', to spill. In many verbs both forms can be used, in others only one of them. The reduplicated base is sometimes intensified by means of the infix k'; thus, dak'dal from dadal. The base dadal is only used before the verb substantive. Nouns of agency denoting habit and occupation are usually formed from this reduplicated base by means of the common suffix ich'. Thus, ra-ran-ich', a drug-man, a physician; bek'nao-ich', a maker.

Reciprocal verbs are formed from these bases by inserting the infix p. Thus, dapal and dapal-dapal, to strike one another. There is no regular reciprocal form corresponding to da-dal. The double reciprocal dapapal is sometimes, but very seldom, used as such.

It has already been mentioned that there are separate forms for the active, passive, and middle. With regard to most tenses we shall have to return to this question later on when dealing with the formation of the inflexional bases. In this place we shall only mention that the passive, which also has the meaning of a direct middle, is formed by adding a suffix ok, which usually drops its o after vowels, and the indirect middle by $j\tilde{a}n$; thus, $dal \cdot ok$, to be struck, to strike oneself; $dal \cdot j\tilde{a}n$, to strike for oneself. The intensive base, which is devoid of a middle, forms its passive by adding ogok to the simple base; thus, $dal \cdot ogok$, to be much struck. These suffixes are not used before the tense suffixes. On the other hand, the passive suffix is common in intransitive verbs, and it seems, on the whole, to have the meaning of an intransitive particle. Thus, $s\tilde{a}n$ and $s\tilde{a}n\tilde{a}k$, go; $h\tilde{a}ch$ and hijuk, come, and so on. The reduplicated base is treated exactly like the simple one. Thus, passive dal - dal - ok, indirect middle $dal - dal - j\tilde{a}n$.

Causatives are formed from both simple and reduplicated bases by adding ocho; thus, dal-ocho and dal-ocho, to cause to strike. The causative has a double meaning. In the first place it means 'to cause somebody to do something,' and then it also has the meaning 'to allow somebody to do something.' Thus agu-ocho-ket'-ko-a-e, he (-e) caused (ocho-ket') them (ko) to be brought (agu); ba-e sor-ocho- $a\tilde{n}$ -kan-a, not-he to-approach-allowing-to-me-is, he does not allow me to approach.\frac{1}{1} It will be seen from the instances just given that the object infix (ko) is used in the former and the dative infix $(a\tilde{n})$ in the latter sense. The causative of the intensive base is formed by inserting the infix k' in the suffix ocho. The various forms of dal and da-pal, strike, will be seen from the table which follows:—

Base.	Passive.	Indirect middle.	Causative.	Reciprocal.
dal, strike.	dal-ok', be struck, strike oneself.	dal-jän, strike for oneself.	dal-ocho, cause or allow to strike.	dapal, strike each other.
da-dal, strike much.	dal-og-ok', be much struck, strike oneself much.	not used.	dal-ok'-cho, cause or allow to strike much.	dapapal, strike

The causative and reciprocal bases further have each their passive, middle and so forth. Thus, dal-ochok', be caused, or allowed, to strike; dal-ocho-jan, cause, or allow,

¹ Compare the similar use of the German verb lassen.

to strike for oneself; dapal-ok', be mutually struck; dapal-ochok', be caused, or allowed, to mutually strike. It will be seen how infinitely the root meaning can be modified, and how it is possible to give expression to the finest shades of verbal action.

Reservative.—In addition to all these bases there is still another conjugation which Mr. Skrefsrud calls the reservative form. He describes its meaning as follows:—

'This form denotes an action by which the object is brought into a certain state, in which it is allowed to continue, so as to be available (reserved) for any ulterior purpose. It is used where in German they would use an, auf, hin, etc., as anjām-kak'-mä, listen to it (höre es an,) (that you may give evidence in case it should be necessary).'

The reservative form, which is conjugated throughout, has also separate causative and reciprocal bases. It usually means that the action is completed in itself. Compare adá-ä ñäl-hape-kat'-ge-a, so-he saw-kept-quiet, he saw it and kept quiet (and did not say any more), in the second specimen below.

The reservative is formed by adding a ka to the base. The final a coalesces with the initial vowel of tense-suffixes. Thus, dal-ka, passive and indirect middle dal-kok' reciprocal da-pal-ka, causative dal-ocho-ka, dapal-ocho-ka, and so forth. In the reservative form the passive suffix ok' is also used in the indirect middle, and it does not possess all the tenses of the simple base. In other respects, however, the ordinary and the reservative conjugations are quite parallel.

Person.—Verbs do not change for person. The person of the subject is, however, in the case of animate beings indicated by means of pronominal suffixes. Compare pronouns above. The suffixes are added to the word immediately preceding the verb. Thus, hāpān-ā met-ad-e-a, the-son-he said-to-him. If the sentence only consists of a verb the suffix is added after the categorical a. Thus, met-ad-e-a-ñ, I said to him. It should be noted that several verbs which in English are impersonal have a personal subject in Santālī. This is the case with such verbs as indicate natural phenomena such as rain, hail, sunshine, etc. Compare dak'-et'-a-e, he waters, it rains; adi-y-ā raban-a, much-he cold-is, it is very cold. The same expressions are well known from other languages, and it is not necessary to assume that they have anything to do with the idea of an Omnipotent Deity, as has sometimes been supposed.

On the other hand there are several impersonal verbs in Santālī which in English are combined with a personal subject. They are such as denote various sensations such as hunger, thirst, sleepiness, and so on. The Santāls like the Germans say, 'hungers me,' 'makes me cold,' and so forth. In the same way they say menak'-ko-a, there are, they exist; compare the German es giebt.

Inflexional bases.—We shall now proceed to a short examination of the inflexional bases which correspond to the tenses of other languages. It is not intended to give a complete survey of all the various forms. We shall confine ourselves to the usual ones.

The mere base, without any addition, gives the idea of the action generally, without being confined to any special time present or past. In verbs ending in a vowel an e is added to the base if no pronominal infix is required. This e coalesces with a preceding e or i into the corresponding long vowel. This base is used in general statements, in vivid narratives, in order to denote custom or habit, and, most commonly, as a future. Thus, $dal \cdot q\tilde{n}$, I strike, or, shall strike. The pronominal infixes are added immediately

to the base. Thus, $dal\text{-}e\text{-}a\tilde{n}$, I strike him; $dal\text{-}a\tilde{n}\text{-}a\text{-}e$, he strikes for me. Compare further dal-ok'-a-e, he is struck, or, he strikes himself; $dal\text{-}ja\tilde{n}\text{-}a\text{-}e$, he strikes for himself; dal-ka-k'-a-e, he strikes it (and has done with it); dal-ka-e-a-e, he strikes him; dapal-a-ko, they will strike each other, and so forth.

The suffixes of the direct and indirect middle are not used in other tenses, or rather inflexional bases. They are replaced by separate terminations. The various suffixes of time have two forms, one denoting the active, and another the passive and middle. The former ends in t', the latter in n. Thus, dal-let'-a-e, he struck; dal-len-a-e, he was struck. The indirect middle is distinguished from the direct middle and passive in the same way as that in which the pronominal suffix of the indirect object is distinguished from that of the direct object, i.e. an a precedes the n in the indirect middle.

There are several more or less complete sets of such suffixes. In the first place we have a set et', at', en, an. The form ending in et' is an incomplete present, the other forms denote an action performed in the past. Thus, dal-et'-a-e, he strikes; met-ad-e-a-e, he addressed him; dal-en-a-e, he was struck; dal-an-a-e, he struck for himself. The corresponding reservative forms are dal-kat'-a-e, he struck; dal-kan-a-e, he was struck; dal-kan-a-e, he struck for himself.

It will be seen that the a of the reservative suffix ka supersedes a following e. The form dal-ken-a-e has a different origin. It corresponds to the active dal-ket'-a-e, and does not contain the reservative suffix.

The form dal-kat'-a-e, he struck, is derived from a dal-ka-et'-a-e and dal-ka-at'-a-e. It shows that the termination et' cannot originally have been confined to the present time.

The suffix at contains the a of the pronominal infix of the indirect object. The remaining portion of the infix is added after the final t. Thus, dal-at- $ko-a\tilde{n}$, I struck for them, or, at them; $met-ad-e-a\tilde{n}$, I said to him.

There are two infixes which denote an action in the past, viz., ke and le. Ke is only used in the active voice with a direct object. Thus, dal-ked-e-a-e, he struck him. The corresponding forms for the indirect object, the direct and indirect middle, are supplied from the set just mentioned; thus, met-ad-e-a-e, he said to him; dal-en-a-e, he was struck; dal-an-a-e, he struck for himself.

The infix le denotes something which was done in a more remote past, or the effect of which has been superseded by some later action. It can therefore often be translated as a pluperfect. It is used in the active voice with a direct object and in the passive. Thus, dal-let'-a-e, he struck, he had struck; dal-len-a-e, he was struck, he struck himself. Instead of dal-let', dal-lak' is used with an inanimate object; thus, dal-lak'-a-e, he struck it. The suffix ak' is well known from the inflexion of nouns and pronouns as a suffix denoting inanimate things. Compare also the reservative future dal-ka-k'-a-e, he will strike it.

It will be seen that the infixes ke and le are prefixed to the suffixes et', en, which we have already dealt with. They are, however, also used alone.

Ke is used as a suffix in order to form an inflexional base with the meaning of an optative or hypothetical tense. It is used in polite queries, it denotes wishes, and also what might possibly happen. Thus, rakap'-ke-a-m, would you mind bringing up earth? am-äm met-añ-khan-iñ rakap'-ke-a, if you tell me so I would do it; nia-ge khusi-tä tela-ke-am, may you accept this with favour.

In a similar way a tense is formed by adding le. It is used in conditional sentences in connexion with the negative áhá. Thus, uni-thän-dá gárá áhá-m ñam-le-a, him-from assistance in-no-wise-you will-get; am-äm män-le-khan, thou-thou sayest-if.

There is further a form which is usually called a perfect. It is formed by adding the suffixes akat', aka-w-at' (indirect object), akan (passive and direct middle), and aka-w-an (indirect middle). Thus, dal-akat'-a-e, he has struck; dal-akan-a-e, he has been struck, and so on.

The base of the suffix of the perfect is aka, to which the usual set et', at', en, an, has been added.

The suffix aka is also used in a base which is commonly called a continuative. It is always combined with the auxiliary $tah\ddot{a}n$, to be, to remain. It is also added to the causative base, and it is used with a direct and an indirect object, in the direct and indirect middle. Before the a of the infix of the indirect object and the suffix of the indirect middle a w or o is inserted to avoid the hiatus, and if no object infix is required an e is added as in verbs ending in vowels. Thus, dal-aka-ko- $tah\ddot{a}n$ -a-e, he will continue to strike them; dal-aka- $tah\ddot{a}n$ -a-e, he will continue to strike himself; dal-aka-w-ak- $tah\ddot{a}n$ -a-e, he will continue to strike at it; dal-aka-w-ako- $tah\ddot{a}n$ -a-e, he will continue to strike for them; jagoar-akae- $tah\ddot{a}n$ - $p\ddot{a}$, wake-ye.

It is evident that the continuative force is imparted to such forms as those just quoted by the addition $tah\ddot{a}n$, and not by the suffix aka. This latter must be identical with the aka of the perfect, though it is difficult to account for its use in all cases.

The inflexional bases mentioned above become real tenses by adding the categorical a. It has already been stated that auxiliaries are inserted between the inflexional base and this a. By means of such auxiliaries compound tenses can be formed. The most usual auxiliary verbs are the copula kan and its past $taha^2-kan$. Thus, dal-ed-e-kan-a-e, or dal-e-kan-a-e, he is striking him; $dal-led-e-taha^2-kan-a-e$, struck-having-him-was-he, he had struck him; $dal-aka-w-an-taha^2-kan-a-e$, he had struck for himself, and so forth.

The table which follows will show the usual inflexional bases of the verb dal, strike:—

					Direct object.	Indirect object.	Passive.	Indirect middle.
Future	•	•	•		dal	dal- a	dal- ok '	dal - $j\hat{a}\hat{n}$
Reservative		•			dal- ka		dal-kok'	dal- kok '
Present		•		.•	dal- et			
Simple past			e		dal- ket	dal- at	dal- en	dal-an
Past reserva	tive				dal- kat		dal- kan	dal-ken
Anterior pas	t	٠	•	٠.	$rac{dal ext{-}let ext{'}}{dal ext{-}lak ext{'}}$		dal- len	
Perfect	•	•			dal- $akat$	dal- $akawat$	dal- $akan$	dal-akawan

The suffixes ket', at', en, an; kat', kan, ken; le or len are often combined with a particle ge in order to form a kind of semi-tenses which denote what might perhaps take place or what will take place after the performance of some act. Thus, mit' bar mat'-lan mak'-ket'-ge, one two bamboos-we-two cut-may, we may perhaps cut a couple of bamboos. Such forms are used like the English idioms 'will do,' 'may do,' to denote a custom or an action which will probably take place. Thus, ona nam-ka-tä-ko

johar-barao-a-ko-a, adá märám-ko tiak-idi-ked-e-ge, that got-having-they greet-tothem, then goat-they take-away-it, when they have got it they greet them, and then they will carry off the goat; hapä, kichrich'-iñ agu-le-ge, wait, I will first fetch my clothes; orak'-te-ñ sän-len-ge, I may first go home, I will first go home. Such forms are not, however, real tenses.

Some of the examples given in the preceding pages will show that imperatives are formed by adding the pronominal suffixes to the inflexional bases; thus, $hijuk'-m\ddot{a}$, come; $h\ddot{a}ch'-len-m\ddot{a}$, come first (before you do something else), come at once. The simple imperative is formed in this way from the simple, the intensive, the reciprocal, and the reservative bases. If an action should be performed at once, before something else, the pronominal suffixes are added to the suffixes le (active), len (passive), and an (indirect middle). Thus, par-hao-le-m, read first; $h\ddot{a}ch'-len-m\ddot{a}$, come first; $jirau-an-p\ddot{a}$, first rest yourselves.

It has already been mentioned how the inflexional bases are used as verbs and adjectives. In this way are formed verbal nouns, adverbial and relative participles, infinitives of purpose, and so forth. Thus, Rampur-te-ñ chala-k'-kan-tahā-kan-khān pā serma hoe-akan-a, Rampur-to-I going-been-having-from three years become-have, three years have passed since I used to go to Rampur; ato-rān hār-ko jarao-lagid-ok'-kan-tahā-kan-thāch' manjhi-hā-e hāch'-en-a, village-of men assembling-for-being-where head-man-also-he came, the headman came also to the place where the villagers were about to assemble; alā-dā bir-rā-lā durup'-akan-tahā-kan-rā, we-as-for forest-in-we sat-having-being-in, while we were sitting down in the forest; bichar-bichar-tā-ko anga-ket'-a, judging-judging-they dawned, they sat in council till dawn; gāch' hār, the dead man; gāch'-ich', the dead one; boge jā ban jāk' mit'-kā-mit' dare, every tree that does not bear good fruit; on-ko-e dohmotlet'-ko dan-aimai, those-he accused-had-them witches, the witches he had accused, and so forth.

Most particles in Santālī are independent words. Thus, män-khan, but, lit. if you say; än-rä-hã, still, lit. that-in-also; ona-tä, therefore, lit. that-with, that-in, and so on. In this place we shall only mention the very common particles dá and ge, and the negative. Dá can often be translated 'as to,' 'in his turn,' and it is often added to the subject, but also to the object. Thus, alä-dá bir-ko-rä ar buru-ko-rä-lä tahã-kan-a, ar deko-ko-dá ṭanḍi-ko-rä, we on our side were living in the jungles and hills; and as to the Hindus, they were living in the plains.

Ge emphasises the word to which it is suffixed; thus, cholak'-ge- α - \tilde{n} , I shall certainly go.

The usual negative is a prefixed ban. The final n is dropped before pronominal suffixes. Thus, ba-ko dal-let'-a, not-they struck, they did not strike. The suffixes ket', kat' are never used after ban. There is also a negative impersonal verb banuk'-a, it is not; thus, banug- $i\tilde{n}$ -a, I am not; banuk'-le-a, we are not, etc.

Alo is used in wishes, with the future as an imperative, and in final clauses; thus, alo-m hijuk'-ma, may you not come; alo-m dal-ko-a, don't strike them. The emphatic negative $\acute{a}h\acute{a}$ has already been mentioned.

For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned under Authorities. The principal features of the language will be seen from the Skeleton Grammar which follows.

SANTĀLĪ SKELETON GRAMMAR.

I.—Nouns:—Hâr, man; dual hâr-kin; plural hâr-ko. Genitive hâr-ran; hâr-ak, hâr-an, hâr-reak, hâr-rean; hâr-kin-ran, etc. Postpositions, tä, in, into, by means of; rā, in; thān, thāch, with, to; sān, sāch, towards; khân, khách from, etc.

II.—Pronouns.—Iñ, I; am, thou; ach', he.

			Full form.	Suffix.	Infix, direct object.	Infix, indirect object.	Infix, genitive.
Ι.		-	$i\tilde{n}$	iñ, ñ	iñ, ñ	añ	tiñ
Thou and I			a-lañ	lan	lañ	a-lai	ta-lan
He and I			ą-liñ	liñ	$li\tilde{n}$	a-liñ	tạ-liñ
We, inclus.			a-bo, a-bon	bo, bon	bo, bon	a-bo, a-bon	ta-bo, ta-bon
We, exclus.			a-lä	lä	lä, le	a-lä, a-le	ta-lä, ta-le
Thou .			am	äm, m, mä	$m\ddot{a},\ me$	am	tam
You two			a-bän	$b\ddot{a}n$	bän, ben	a-bän, a-ben	ta-bän, ta-ben
You .			a-pä	pä .	pä, pe	a-pä, a-pe	ta-pä, ta-pe
Self, he			ach'	ä	ä, e	ae; ak' (in-	tae
They two			a-kin	kin	k:	animate).	ta-kin
They .			a-ko	ko	ko	a-ko	ta-ko

Demonstrative pronouns.-Ni, this very ; nui, this ; hani, that.

Remote.		Nea	irer.	Ne	arest.	Intensive.		
Animate.	Inanimate.	Animate.	Inanimate.	Animate.	Inanimate.	Animate.	Inanimate.	
hini, (hin- kin, hen- ko).	hina, (hi- na-kin, hina-ko).	ini (in-kin, en-ko).	iną, (-kin,-ko)	ni, (ni-kin, ne-ko).	nia, (-kin,-ko)	$n\widetilde{\imath}k'\widetilde{\imath}$	nāk'ā, (-kin,- ko).	
huni, (hun- kin, hon-ko).	hona, etc.	uni, (un-kin,	ona, etc.	nui (nu-kin, no-ko).	noa, etc.	$n\widetilde{u}k'\widetilde{u}i$	$n\widetilde{a}k'\widetilde{a}e$, etc.	
hani, hãi, (han-kin, han-ko).	hana, etc.		0					

Other demonstratives are nhi, nhia; nhui, nhoa, nhãi, nha, this, that, on the side; ânä, hânä; änä, hänä; anä, hanā, this, or that, thing which you see; âtä, hâtä; ätä, hätä; atä hatä, this, or that, thing or being which you hear. Pronouns ending in i, and sometimes those ending in tä, denote animate beings, the rest refer to inanimate nouns. Those beginning with h refer to what is remote; those beginning with a vowel to what is nearer; those beginning with n to what is close at hand.

Interrogative Pronouns.—Akâe, who? chele, what sort of animate being? oka, which? chet', what? III.—Verbs.

A. Conjugational bases.—Dal, strike.

			Principal form	Reciprocal form.			
		Active.	Passive.	Middle.	Active.	Passive.	Middle.
Simple base .		dal	dalok'	dal-jân	dapal	dapal-ok'	dapal-jār
" Causative		dal-ocho	dalochok'	dal-ocho-jân	dapal-ocho	dapal-ochok'	dapal-ocho- jan
Intensive .		dadal	dal-ogok'		dak'pal, dapa- pal	dapapal-ok'	dapapal-jân
" Causative	•	$dal ext{-}ok$ 'cho		{	dak'pal-ok'cho dapapal-ocho	} dapapal-och	ok'
Reservative .		dal- ka	dal-kok'	dal-kok'	dapal-ka	dapal	-kok'
" Causative		dal-ocho- ka	dal-ocho-kok'	dal-ocho-kok'	dapal-ocho-ka	dapal-o	ho-kok'

The double base dal-dal, to strike repeatedly, is inflected like the simple base; thus, passive dal-dal-ok'; reciprocal -dapal-dapal, etc.

B. Inflexional bases.-

	Future.			Present. Simple past.			Anterior past.
	Simple.	Reservative.	Simple.	Simple.	Reservative.		
Direct object .	dal	dal-ka	dal-et'	dal-ket'	dal-kat'	dal-let',	dal-akat'
Indirect object	dal-a	,,		dal-at'		dal- lak '	dal-akawat'
Passive	dal-ok'	dal-kok'		dal-en	dal-kan	dal- len	dal-akan
Indirect middle	dal-jâñ	,,		dal-an	dal-ken		dal-akawan

The future base is often used as a present base, and always so in the reservative form.

Compound tenses are formed by means of the auxiliaries kan, is; tahā-kan, was; thus, dal-kan-qñ or dal-et'-kan-qñ, I am striking; dal-et'-tahā-kan-a, was striking; dal-let'-tahā-kan-a, had struck, etc.

Negative Particles.—ban, not. The n is dropped before pronominal suffixes; thus, ban dal-led-e-a, I did not estrike him. Alo, don't; âhâ, used in conditions or as an emphatic negative.

Pronominal infixes are added to the inflexional bases; thus, dal-ked-e, struck him.

Finite tenses are formed by adding the categorical a; thus, dal-ked-e-qñ, I struck him.

The inflexional bases are used as participles and verbal neurs. Thus, dal-ked-o har, the man who was struck; dal-ka-tz, having struck.

The language spoken by most Santāls closely agrees with the grammatical sketch given in the preceding pages. Locality to some extent causes differences in vocabulary, and it has already been remarked that this fact has in recent times given rise to a slight difference in dialect between the east, where most loan-words come from Bengali, and the west which chiefly borrows from Bihārī, and the south where the influence of Oriyā is felt. On the whole, however, there is scarcely any difference in dialect from Bhagalpur in the north, down to Manbhum and Burdwan in the south.

Five specimens will be given of this Standard form of Santālī. The three first ones have come from the Sonthal Parganas, the fourth from Manbhum, and the fifth from Monghyr. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son by the Rev. L. Skrefsrud; the second is a popular tale, and the third two Santālī songs, for which I am indebted to the Rev. P. O. Bodding. The fourth is a short traditional tale, prepared by the Rev. A. Campbell, and the fifth is the account of a famine year in Monghyr.

The specimens are excellent. I have introduced the distinction between \vec{a} and o, \vec{a} and e, respectively, in the fourth and fifth specimens, and made some slight corrections in the fifth. On the whole, however, I have printed the specimens as I got them.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found below on pp. 240 and ff. I owe it to the kindness of the Rev. P. O. Bodding, who has also been good enough to read the proofs of the Munda section. I am indebted to him for a long series of highly valuable notes and corrections.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

SANTĀLĪ.

SPECIMEN I.

(BENAGARIA, RAMPUR HAT, SONTHAL PARGANAS.)

(Rev. L. O. Skrefsrud, 1897.)

taha-kan-tae-a. hâpân-kin Ar un-kin Mit' hår-rän bar-ea kora children-they-two were-his. And them-two boy mâtâ-rä hudiñich'-dâ apat-ä metad-e-a, 'ä baba, iñ-rä paraok' menak'among the-little-one his-father-he said-to-him, 'Ofather, me-to falling existing-Adâ aidari-tät'-ä hatiñ-at'ak'-reak' bakhra dän-äm-ka-tiñ-mä.' portion bestow-give-outright-mine-thou.' So the-property-he divided-tothing-of Khan-ge thora din tayâm uni hudiñ hâpân-dâ sanam-ak'-ko samtaokin-a. a-few days after that little all-things collectedthem-two. chalao-en-a, ar ândä-dâ lucha-lamât din ka-tä mit'täch' sangiñ disom-tä-y-ä thereriotously went, andfar country-to-he having tahā-kan-tae-ak'-a tahas-nahas-ket'-a. Ar sanam-ak'-ko-e ubla-dublatalao-tä And all-things-he squanderedspending-in being-his-what-he wasted.ket'-tae-khan ona disom-rä mit-täch' akal hoy-en-a, ar uni-dâ rängäjãt had-his-when that country-in mighty famine became, and he to-hungerone -âk'-ä ähâp'-en-a. Khange sän-ka-tä ona disom-rän mit'-tän rayot-thän-ä läothä-Then gone-having that country-of oneryot-with-he joinedhe ar uni-dâ ach'-ak' dåhta-jaega-tä-y-ä kol-kad-e-a sukri gupi. Adâ sukriv-en-a branch-place-to-he sent-him swine to-tend. And pigshimself and he hischoklak'-tä ach'ak' lach' päk'räch'-ä gagâj-âk'-kan jâm-et' taha-kan ko-ko belly to-fill-he desiring husks-with his being eating em-ae-kan taha-kan-a. Khan-ge âkâe-hẫ ba-ko män-khan taha-kan-a, anyone-even not-they giving-to-him Thenbut anas. tinak' munis-ko-reak' jâm-ak' män-ket'-a, 'apu-ñ-rän chetao-än-tä-y-ä food men-of sensible-having-become-he 'father-my-of how-many said, nândâ-ñ bendaok'-kan-a. män-khan iñ-dâ rängäch'-tä sarer-ok'-kan-tako-a, perishing-am. here-I superfluous-is-their, 1 hunger-with but "ä baba, sermaapu-ñ-thän-iñ chalak'-a ar-iñ met-ae-a, Beret'-ka-tä " O father, heaven-Arisen-having father-my-to-I will-go and-I will-say-to-him, reak' ar am saman-rä-ñ kai-akat'-a; am-rän hâpân ar ñum-og-ok' lek-ge-ñ of and thy presence-in-I sinned-have; thee-of son more to-be-called worthy-I

ban-kan-a; am-rän mit'tän munis-leka-ñ-mä barä." 'Khan-ge beret'thee-of hired-servant-like-make-me-thou please."' Then havingapat-thän-ä häch'-en-a. Män-khan sangiñ-rä-y-ä tahä-kan-rä-ge ka-tä ach'-rän arisen himself-of father-his-to-he came. Butdistance-at-he being-in apat-dâ-e mãyã-ge ñäl-ñam-ked-e-a, ar häch'-ad-e-a, ar ñirhim-of father-his-indeed-he see-got-him, and compassion came-to-him, and runsän-ka-tä-y-ä kâkä-ked-e ar-ä châk'-châk'-ad-e-a. Män-khan hâpân-ä metgone-having-he embraced-him and-he kissed-repeatedly-to-him. But the-son-he said-toad-e-a, 'ä baba, serma-reak' ar am saman-rä-ñ kại-akat'-a; am-rän hậpân ar him, 'O father, heaven-of and thy presence-in-I sinned-have; thee-of son more ńum-og-ok' lek-ge-ñ ban-kan-a.' Män-khan apat-tät'-då ach'-rän golam-ko-e metto-be-called worthy-I not-am.' father-his-the himself-of servants-he said-Butat'ko-a, 'dän boge utar oyon-angrap odok-agu-hât'-ka-tä hârâk'-ae-pä, to-them, 'here good most covering-cloth forth-brought-quickly-having put-it-on-him-ye, uni-ak' ti-rä mundam ar janga-rä kharpaw-ae-pä, jam-ta-bon and him-of hand-on ringand feet-on sandal-put-for-him-ye, and eating-us häsäch'-säkräj-åk'-ma; än-tä nui iñ-rän hâpân gâch'-ge-y-ä tahã-kan-a, ar-ä make-ourselves-merry-let; because this me-of dead-he was, and-hejivet'-ruar-en-a; at'-ge-y-ä taha-kan-a, ar-ä ñam-en-a.' Khan-ge häsäch'alive-returned: lost-he and-he found-was.' was. Then to-makesäkräj-åk'-ko pârtân-ket'-a. themselves-merry-they began.

Män-khan uni-rän maran hâpân-dâ khät-rä-y-ä tahä-kan-a. Ar orak'-ä Buthim-of field-in-he bigsonwas. And house-he häch'-sor-än-rä añjâm-ñam-ket'-a. Khan-ge mit'-ṭän guti-kora ran-rij-ä coming-near-in music-and-dancing-he to-hear-got. Then servant-lad ' ona-ko-dâ chet'-kan-a?' hâhâ-sor-ka-tä-y-ä khuriau-an-a, män-tä. called-near-having-he inquired-for-himself, 'those-things what-are?' having-said. Uni-dâ-e met-ad-e-a ban-ma, 'bâkâ-m-ä häch'-akan-a: He-on-the-other-hand-he said-to-him that, 'younger-brother-thy-he come-is; mit'-täch'-ä bhaj-akat'-a, apu-m-dâ nirâpân-ä ñam-ruarand father-thy-on-his-side one-he feast-has-made, safe-and-sound-he got-backked-e-tärån.' Khan-ge-y-ä rangao-en-a ar bâlâk' bae räbän-len-a. Adâ uni-rän Then-he angry-was and to-go-in not-he consented. him-because.' So him-of odok häch'-än-tä-y-ä mâsâkusi-y-ed-e-kan tahä-kan-a. apat Män-khan father-his outcome-having-in-he entreating-him was. But'nak'ae, nunak' râr-ruar-ka-tä apat-ä met-ad-e-a, he-on-the-other-hand said-back-having father-his-he said-to-him, so-many serma am-thän golam-iñ khatao-et'-a ar amak' hukum tis-rä-hậ years thee-with slave-I work and thy commandment any-time-even not-I taram-parâm-akat'-a. Än-rä-hã iñ-dã tis-rä-hã mit'-täch' märâm-hâpân-ge transgressed-across-have. Yet me any-time-even one goat-young

ba-m äm-akaw-ad-iñ-a, jämân iñ-rän gate-ko tuluch'-iñ häsäch'-säkräch'-kâk'. not-thou given-hast-to-me, so-that me-of companions with-Imight-make-merry. Män-khan kusmbi-ko tuluch' am-ak' aidari-y-ä gadaw-akat' nui hâpân-mä-y-ä harlots withproperty-he devoured-having this son-thy-he Butthyhäch'-än-rä-då mit'-täch'-äm bhaj-akat'-a'. Män-khan uni-dâ-e come-having-in one-thou feast-hast-made. Buthe-on-the-other-hand-he met-ad-e-a, 'bachha, jaoge iñ tuluch' mena-m-a, ar jâtâ iñ-ak'-ko-dâ am-dâ said-to-him, 'child, thou-indeed always me with art-thou, and all my-things amak'-kan-ge-a. Män-khan häsäch'-säkräj-âk' ar raskak'-ge chahiye. Än-tä nui thine-are. Butto-make-merry and be-glad is-proper. Because this bâkâ-m-dâ gâch'ge-y-a taha-kan-a, ar-a jivet'-en-a; at'-ge-y-a taha-kan-a younger-brother-thy dead-he and-he revived; lost-he was, ar-ä ñam-en-a.' and-he found-was.'

[No. 2.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

SANTĀLĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(Rev. P. O. Bodding, 1903.)

(SONTHAL PARGANAS.)

LELHA JÄWÄE-GOMKE-T-REAN. ST UPID SO N-IN-LAW-ABO UT.

kathae, mit'tän hâr-rän hâpân-era-t jawae-gomke-t-a Sedae jug-rä, man-of child-female-his son-in-law-his-he it-is-told, one Former age-in, ach' eskar-ge Adâ mit'-dhao, kathae, taha-kan-a mit'-tan ato-ra. village-in. And one-time, it-is-told, self alonefather-in-law nãihar-tä pera-hâr-âk'-ä orak'tä sä sän-len mother-in-law house-to or wife's-father's-house-to relative-person-to-become-he gone hanhar-tät' budhi-dâ-ä un-rä uni dakataha-kan-a; adâ thatmother-in-law old-woman-as-to-she boiledthat-in galmarao-kan-a. Adâ en-ka baraetuluch' hã-e ar uni utu-y-et'-a, talking -is. rice-curry-prepares, and him with also-she Sothus going-onun-rä uni budhi-dâ handua-i Adâ utu-let'-a. ayup'-en-a. then that old-woman bamboo-shoots-she curry-had-done. So in evening-became. daka-utu-ka-tä dak'-ä tan-ad-e-a daka jâm-lagit', ar Adâ water-she poured-out-to-him riceeating-for, and So rice-curry-having-made bel-ad-e-a. Adâ şbuk-bâlâ-ka-tä silpiñ are sän-re-ge gando-dâ-ä stool-she put-before-him. So washing-entering-done-having towardsAdâ jâm jâkhän ona gaṇḍo-rä-y-ä durup'-en-khan-dâ daka-utu-i agu-ad-e-a. stool-on-he sat-down-had-when rice-curry-she brought-to-him. So eating time aikau-et'-a, kuti-sä jel-utu-leka-e jäwäe-gomke-t-då ba-e uni son-in-law-her meat-curry-like-he feels-it, andpiece-any not-he that kuli-ked-e-a, 'henda gâ, chet'-bän utuňam-et'-a. Khan-ge adâ-e 'listen mother, asked-her, what-you-two curryfinds. Then so-he atkar thik-dare-ak'-kan-a.' Adâ uni jäwäe-gomke-t Ba-liñ have-made? Not-we-two feel-accurately-can-towards-it. Sothatson-in-law-her budhi-dâ-e mat'-silpiñ-ge tahã-kan-a. Adâ män-kät'-a. sän-rä-dâ dea old-woman-she So towards bamboo-door mas. said. back jãwãe, abän dea sän-rä menak' ona-ge-liñ utu-akat'-a.' 'ânä, that-we-two curry-made-have.' So 'that-there, son-in-law, your back towards being

uni jawae-gomke-t-då bängät'-achur-ka-tä-y-ä näl-kät'-då mat'-silpin-kan; adå-e looked-turned-having-he son-in-law-her saw bamboo-door-being; so-he ba-e râr-lät'-a. ñäl-hape-kat'-ge-a. Chet'-ha Ar hå-e uni budhi Anything not-he And that old-woman also-she justsaw-kept-quiet. said. kat'-ge-a. thus-much-said.

Khan-ge adâ uni jãwãe-gomke-t-dâ ach' mânä-mânä-tä-y-ä män-jân-kan-a Then so that son-in-law-her self (-of) mind-mind-in-he says-for-himself ban-ma, 'noa utu-dâ adi sebel-kid-iñ-a. Sanam hâr nahak'-ko japit'-le-namely, 'this curry very well-tasted-me. All person now-they will-have-fallen-asleep-khan, noa silpiñ-dâ-ñ atkir-ge-a.' On-ka ach' mânä-rä-y-ä hudis-dâhâ-kat'-a. when, this door-I carry-off-shall.' Thus self (-of) mind-in-he thought-put-down.

jaga-y-en-a. Adâ sari jâm-bara-ka-tä-ko Ar sanam hâr-ko eating-going-on-having-they placed-themselves. And all person-they So verily beret'-en-tä japit'-kät'-khan-dâ hape-hape-tä ona silpiñ-dâ-e rara-ket'-tako-a door-he loosened-their slept-when quiet-quiet-with arisen-having thatgugu-atkir-ket'-tako-a. ar ona ñinda-re-ge ona silpiñ-ä un that door-he carried-on-his-back-carried-off-their. And and that night-in iâkhäch'-dâ ba-ko disa-led-e-a.

time not-they remembered-him.

äbhän-en-dâ-ko ñäl-bara-y-et', Adâ setak' sim rak' jâkhän-ko So morning cock crow time-they awakened-having-become-they seeing-going-on, hâhâ-ae-khan-dâ banuk' uni jawae-gomke-t-ko ba-e silpiñ-dâ calling-to-him-when not-he thatson-in-law-their-they not-being and ñäl-ä-pä bhala mena-e-a sä ban; adâ-ko män-kät'-a, 'ma-sa, gân-ät'-kan. 'well, see-him-you well exists-he or not; said, answering, so-they män-khan banug-ich'-an. ba-e gân-ät'-dâ.' Adâ sari-ko ñäl-bara-ked-e-a; not-he answering.' So verily-they looked-went-on-him; butnot-being-he.

adi gar-tä-y-ä landa-gât'-kät'-a. hâṛ-dâ Khan-ge adâ uni budhi laughed-suddenly. that old-woman person very loudly un gar-tä-dâ-m kuri-dâ-ko kuli-ked-e-a, chet' 'henda gâ, on-ko hâpân-tät' 'listen mother, what that loudly-thou female-they asked-her, child thoselai-ako-kan-a, ban-ma, 'noa landa-kät'-a?' Adâ un-rä uni budhi-v-ä that old-woman-she saying-to-them-is, namely, 'this laughedst?' then atkir-akat'-a. Hola-n-ok' teña-m-ge dhora-e silpiñ-dâ, na, carried-off-has. Yesterday brother-in-law-your certainly-he girls. door. män-let'-a, " henda gâ, adâ un-rä-y-ä utu-ad-e-a; "listen mother, whatbamboo-shoot-I curried-for-him; so then-he said, Adâ un-rä-ñ metatkar-thik-dare-ak'-kan-a." utu-akat'-a; ba-liñ then-I you curry-have-made; not-we feel-accurately-can-towards-it." So aban dea san-ra menak' ona-liñ utu-akat'-a," ad-e-a, "ânä, jãwãe, to-him, "that-there, son-in-law, your back towards being that-we curry-have-made,"

män-tä. Adâ pasät' ona-tä silpiñ-dâ pasät' teña-m-ge-y-ä atkir-kät'.' saying. So perhaps therefore door perhaps brother-in-law-your-he carried-off.' Adâ ona-e lai-at'-ko-khan sanam hâr adâ adi barieh'-ko landa-kät'-a, ar-ko So that-she said-to-them-when all person so very badly-they laughed, and-they män-kät'-a, 'nui teñan-dâ adi-y-ä lelha-ge-a.' said, 'this brother-in-law very-he stupid-is.'

ona silpiñ-ä rara-dhingalsari uni lelha hâr-dâ So verily that stupid person taken-away-having that door-he loosened-toach' bahu-i metsangal-kät'-tä mit'-mit'-tä jåtå-e samak'-kutra-kät'-a. Adå pieces-having one-one-by all-he chopped-into-bits. So self (-of) wife-he sayingae-kan-a, 'ma noa-ge teheñ-dâ uni-y-ä män-kät'-a, 'noa-dâ utui-mä.' Adâ So that-one-she said, to-her-is, 'please this to-daycurry-make.' Noa-dâ ban sebel-a. chet'-leka-ñ utui-a? Noa râhâr mat'-dâ sebel-a? what-like-I curry-shall? This dry bamboo well-tasting-is? This not well-tastes. 'ban-a, adi adi-m lelha-ge-a.' Adâ un-rä uni-y-ä män-ruar-kät'-a, Thou very-thou stupid-art.' So then that-one-he said-back, ' not-is-so, very sebel-a. sän-len-a. Un-rä noa-ge-ko Hola-n-ok' ayo-tä-ko-thän-iñ beautifully well-tastes. Yesterday mother-with-them-to-I gone-had. Then this-they utu-ad-iñ-dâ. Chet' ban sä, jel utu leka-n aikau-ket'-a, ona-tä noa-dâ-n curry-made-for-me. What not or, meat curry like-I felt-it, that-for this-I. atkir-akat'-tako-a, ba-ko äm-åk'-kan ia-tä.' carried-off-have-their, not-they giving that-for.'

bạhu-t-tät'-ä män-kät'-a, 'noa râhâṛ-dâ än-tä âkâe Adâ jâm-tä-m So wife-his-she said, this drythenwho eating-for-thou utu-ocho-y-ed-iñ-a?' Adâ-e män-kät'-a, 'achha, apä ba-pä jâm-khan, iñ-ge curry-make-causest-me? So-he said. well, you not-you eat-if, utu-añ-pä.' Adâ sari no-ko-ak' katha ba-e san-ocho-at'-tako-khan-ko make-curry-for-me-you.' So forsooth these-of word not-he to-go-allowed-their-when-they utu-ad-e-a. ar-ko em-ad-e-a daka são-tä. Adâ sari made-curry-for-him, and-they gave-to-him boiled-rice with.So for soothdul-gât'-kät'-a; adâ sipi-sipi-ka-tä-y-ä lapät'-gåt'-kät'-a, \mathbf{ar} sauce-he poured-out-quickly; so mixed-mixed-having-he mouthful-quickly-took, and uni bahu-t-tät'-då tan-man-ä ñäl-ä-kan-a. rase tuluch' Adâ ona ban that wife-his intently-she looking-at-him-is. Sothatsauce with sebel-led-e-khan-dâ kuti halan-ka-tä-y-ä gär-gåt'-kät'-a. Adå ona-hå tasted-him-when a-piece taken-up-having-he bit-quickly. So that-also not-he gär-chhadao-dare-at'-khan, uni bahu-t-tät'-dâ landa ba-e sambrao-lät'-tä bite-separate-could-when, thatwife-his laughing not-she restrained-having adi-gar-tä-y-ä landa-gât'-kät'a; adâ ach' ha-e landa-kät'-a. Adâ-e män-kät'-a, very-loudly-she laughed-suddenly; so self also-he laughed. "chet'-leka-châ-m Ba-m batrao-lät'-a. Ona-te-ge ban sebel-kan-a. utu-kät'? 'what-like-thou curry-madest? Not-thou succeededst. That-for not well-tastes.

Cheka-tä noa kuṭi-dâ ba-m lä-ocho-lät'-a? Ayo-y-ä utu-ad-iñ piece not-thou dissolved-madest? Mother-she curry-made-for-me thisWhy kuți-dâ mit' gâțăn ha bạ-n nam-lat'-a. lä-chaba-ocho-lät'-a; sanam kuti-y-ä all pieces-she dissolved-completely-made; piece one piece even not-I found. Am ma äkän kuți-ge-m äm-aka-w-ad-iñ; ar chet'-leka-ñ kuți-lät'-a, on-ka-ge-m Thou now only piece-thou given-hast-to-me; and what-like-I pieces-made, thus-thou dâhâ-kat'-a. Thora ha lä-ocho-lät'-a.' Adâ bahu-t-tät'-ä män-kät'-a, ba-mwife-his-she So Little even not-thou dissolved-madest.' said. puttest. iń-dâ ba-ń badae-a noa utu-dâ. Am-tä utu-jan-mä.' barä Adâ Thee-by please make-curry-for-thyself." not-I know thiscurry. $^{\iota}I$ lä-len. Adâ boge-tä-ko utu-kät'-rä-hå ban ach'-tä-y-ä sari for sooth self-by-he curry-having-made-even not dissolved-was. So good-in-they lelha-ge-ko bahna-ked-e-a, landa-w-ad-c-a. Adâ hilok' khân än surnamed-him, and laughed-at-him. So that-very day from stupid-they met-ae-tä. ona-ge-ko nam-e-pichhe-ko aris-e-a, that-they saying-to-him-by. finding-him-every-time-they annoy-him,

Adâ chaba-y-en-a katha-dâ; in maran-ge-a. So finished-is tale; this great-is.

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FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

The stupid son-in-law.

Once in olden times, it is told, there lived in a certain village a certain man's son-inlaw. One day, they say, he had gone alone to visit his father-in-law and mother-in-law in their home. While there his mother-in-law was engaged in cooking curry and rice, and at the same time she kept up a conversation with him. In this way the evening fell, and the old woman had prepared some bamboo shoots as curry; when she had done cooking, she poured out some water for him to wash his hands ere sitting down to eat, and placed a stool before him near the door. When he had washed his hands and come in again, he sat down on the stool, and she brought him the curry and rice. Whilst eating the son-in-law thought it was meat curry he had; but he did not find any lumps. So he asked his mother-in-law, 'I say, mother, what curry have you given me to-day? I cannot make out exactly what it is.' Now there was the bamboo door at the back of the son-in-law; so the old woman said, 'look there at the back of you, my son-in-law, that is what I have made into curry for you to-day.' So the son-in-law turned round and saw it was a bamboo door; but looking he kept quiet and said nothing; and the old woman too said thus much and nothing more. The son-in-law, however, thought to himself, 'I find this curry perfectly delicious; when every one is asleep presently, I shall walk off with this door.' This he made up his mind to do.

True enough, when all had done eating they retired for the night, and when every one had fallen asleep, he got up quietly and loosened the door, and that very night he put their door on his shoulders and walked off with it, nobody being aware of it at the time the deed was done. When they awoke at cockcrow in the morning and looked about, there was no door to be seen; and when they called out for the son-in-law there was no answer. So they said, 'look and see, if he is there or not; he doesn't answer.' They looked about for him, but he was not there. Then the old woman suddenly burst out into a loud laugh, whereupon her daughters said to her, 'why, mother, what are you laughing so heartily about?' Then the old woman said to them, 'your elder sister's husband, girls, has most assuredly decamped with this door. Yesterday I made him a curry of bamboo shoots, and he asked me what kind of curry it was, as he could not quite make it out; whereupon I told him to look behind him, and he would see what I had made into curry for him. Perhaps that is why your elder sister's husband has carried off the door.' When she told them this, every one laughed very much and said the son-in-law was dreadfully stupid.

True enough, when the stupid fellow had walked off with the door, he took the whole thing to pieces and chopped it into small bits. Then he told his wife, 'make this into curry to-day, please.' She replied, 'how am I to make a curry of this? Will this dry bamboo taste well? Not a bit of it. You are very stupid.' He replied, 'not so, it is simply delicious. Yesterday I went to see your mother and the others, when she made me some curry of this; you may not believe it, but I tell you, it tasted to me just like meat curry; and that is why I made off with this door of theirs, for they would not give it to me.' His wife said, 'who is then going to eat this dry stuff that you want me to make curry of it?' To which he replied, 'all right, if you other people won't eat it, make some curry of it for me.' So, as he would not listen to her, she made him some curry of it and gave it to him along with some boiled rice. Then he poured

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some of the gravy on it and mixing it together with his hand he took a mouthful; and all the while his wife was watching him closely. But as the rice and gravy did not taste particularly nice, he laid hold of a lump of the curry and gave it a bite; when he was unable to bite a piece off, his wife, no longer able to restrain her mirth, burst into a loud laugh, in which he himself also joined. Then he said, 'what kind of a curry have you turned out? You have not succeeded, and therefore it is not savoury. How is it you have not dissolved this piece? Mother dissolved altogether every piece in the curry she gave me; I could not find a single lump in it, whereas you have given me nothing but lumps; you have got it in lumps just the same as when I cut them up; you have not dissolved them one bit.' Then his wife said, 'I am not acquainted with this curry; you had better cook some for yourself.' And true enough, when he had cooked some for himself too he could not get it to dissolve. Whereupon they had a good laugh at him. From that day forward he got the surname of 'Stupid,' and by addressing lim thus every time they met him they teased him well.

That is the end of the tale; there is no more.

[No. 3.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

SANTĀLĪ.

SPECIMEN III.

SANTĀLĪ SONGS.

(Rev. P. O. Bodding, 1903.)

(SONTHAL PARGANAS.)

I.

siń n-eae ńinda sängäl dag-e ho,2 Seven days seven nights fire raining-he O, N-eae siñ n-eae ñinda jadam-jadam ho. Seven days seven nights continuously O. T-cka-rä-bän¹ taha-kan-a, manewa, What-in-you-two were, soro-len? T-oka-rä-bän What-in-you sheltered-being? Harata³ ho, Menak' menak' beingBeing Harata O, Menak' menak' buru-dander ho, Beingbeing mountain-cave O, N-ona-rä-liñ taha-kan-a n-alin-da, That-in-we-two we-two, mere N-ona-rä-liñ soro-len. That-in-we-two sheltered-being.

II.

Kat-dâ, ho, babu mag-mä-sä, Timber, young-man cut-thou, N-isi n-arãr babu benao-mä-sä; Plough-beam yoke young-man make-thou; N-isi n-arãr babu benao-lä-khach', Plough-beam yoke made-hast-if, young-man Hasa-re-ge babu sona hoe-ok'. Earth-in young-man goldbecomes.

¹ In songs an n is prefixed to every word beginning with a vowel, with the exception of the interrogative pronoun, which prefixes a t. This rule is now a days often disregarded, especially by men.

² Inserted to fill up the metre.

³ The mountain where the two progenitors of the human race were saved from destruction by the fire-rain.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

T.

It rained fire for seven days and seven nights; seven days and seven nights, incessantly. Where were you two 1 then, where did you take shelter?

On the mountain Harata, in a cave, there we two were, there we two took shelter.

TT

Cut timber, young man, make a ploughbeam and a yoke. Then you will earn gold from the soil.

[No. 4.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

SANTĀLĪ.

SPECIMEN IV.

(Rev. A. Campbell, 1897.)

(GOBINDPUR, DISTRICT MANBHUM.) Khan-ge Maran Buru manwa-e met-ad-e-a nia-ge, unkin Then Great Mountain man-he said-to-him this. ' those-two eto-kin-mä. Khan ek'to-e ähâp'-ked-a. Eto-ket'-kin-khan-ä Maran break-in-the-two.' Then breaking-in-he Broken-in-when-he began. Great Buru-dâ manwa nahel mak'-ä idi-ked-e-a. Idi-ka-tä Maran Mountain plough to-cut-he Taken-having mantook-away-him. Great Buru nahel mak'-ä chet'-ocho-ked-e-a, lak'-râk'-ket'-tä ar Mountain plough to-cut-he . taught-him, chipped-bored-having andsiok'-ä ähâp'-ked-a. Ähâp'-ket'-khan goda-e si-lahut'-ked-a. to-plough-he began. Begun-having-when highland-he ploughed-crushed. Lahut'-ket'-khan-ä kuli-ked-e-a, 'henda, Maran Buru, chet'-bon Crushed-having-when-he asked-him, hark, Great Mountain, what-we är-a?' Khan Maran serma-khân Buru iri-y-ä agu-ked-a ar shall-sow? Then broughtGreat Mountain heaven-from iri-he and manwa-e em-ad-e-a, är-ked-a. ar-ä Janam-en-a, dare-y-en-a, man-he gave-to-him, and-he sowed. It-was-produced, became-a-plant nawai-reak'-ko gele-bele-y-en-a, ähâp'-ked-a. Adâ mit' nakha-rä ar eared-ripened, and first-fruit-ceremony-they began. Thenone direction-in

¹ The man and woman who escaped when God was destroying the human race by fire-rain. The song has been taken from the old Santālī traditions.

taha-kan-a, ona-reak' Sari-sarjâm bhauntich'-ked-a sakam agu-ka-tä-ko Sari-sarjám that-of leaves brought-having-they was. a-cup-made sunum sindur-ko dâhâ-ked-a. ar ona-rä andthat-in oilred-lead-they put.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Maran Buru¹ then told the man to break in two (bullocks), and he began to do so, and when he had broken them in, Maran Buru took him away in order to cut a plough and taught him to do so. Having chipped and bored it, he began to plough and broke the highland by ploughing. Then he asked, 'Maran Buru, what shall we sow?' Maran Buru then brought an Iri² from heaven and gave it to the man to sow. It sprouted, became a plant, and ripened, and they began to perform the ceremony of the first fruits. There was a Sari-Sarjom tree on one side. They took its leaves and made a cup out of them, and put oil and red-lead in it.

Lit. the great mountain, i.e., the mountain spirit worshipped by the Sautāls.
 A cultivated millet, Panicum Crus-galli.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

SANTĀLĪ.

SPECIMEN V.

(CHAKAI THANA, DISTRICT MONGHYR.)

Näs-dâ disom-rä akal hoe-akan-tä hâr-ko jâm-reak' adi kâsţâ This-year country-in famine become-having men-they eat-concerning great distress hoe-akan-tako-a. Aghar-khân Mag-habich'-dâ thora-thuri anaj-reak' has-become-of-them. Aghar-from Magh-till little-little grain-of dak'-mandi-ka-tä-ko ññ-lâlâ-bara-y-en-a. Män-khan ona-ko rice-water-having-made-they drinking-warming-themselves-went-on. But those-they chaba-bara-ket'-khan matkâm-sarjâm-ko jâm-bara-ked-a. Ina-ha finished-again-had-when Matkam-Sarjam-fruits-they ate-for-some-time. These-even sanam-ko jâm-chaba-ked-a, ina-ka-tä mit' jâkhan-dâ terel tarap' siñjo all-they eating-finished, then time-on-the-other-hand terel tarop bael emanteak'-ko-tä din-ko khemao-ked-a. Ona-ha lura-luri sanam-ko hunar-chabaetcetera-with days-they passed. Those-even grabbing all-they ked-a mit' jâkhan-dâ at-aser-piską-ko-tä-ko gujar-bara-ked-a. finished one time-on-the-other-hand at-aser-piska-roots-with-they subsisted-for-a-time. garundi-arak' baihar-reak' kantha-arak' much'-arak' jhinuk-tä At-present rice-field-of kantha-potherb garundi-potherb much'-potherb shells-with sanam-ko khayat'-chaba-ked-a ar bir-reak' matha-arak' pådå-arak' ar boe-bindito-dig-up-finished and forest-of matha-potherb podo-potherb and boe-bindiarak' sauri-arak' orsa-arak' ar-ar-emanteak' arak' ar sakam-ko jâm-ed-a potherb and sauri-potherb orsa-potherb and-other vegetable leaves-they eatSanam hârmâ dhopsa-en-tako-a arak' sakam Näs-dâ jām-tä. bodies are-swollen-their vegetable leaves eating-from. cattle-like. This-year mahajân-ko ban-ko num-ed-a dirhia-dobra-ha ban-ko äm-ak'-kan-a, ona-tä money-lenders not-they mention two-and-a-half-fold-even not-they are-given, therefore rängäch'-tä adi hâr-ko händät'-thäpät'-en-a, dare-hå ban-ko aikau-ed-a. hunger-with many men weak-have-become, not-they strength-evenfeel. Chaole-ha adi mahnga-y-en-a. Chet'-leka-tä näs-dâ hâr-ko gujar-a, Husked-rice-even very dear-is. Howthis-year men-they shall-subsist, ona-dâ adi maskil-ge-a. Ita-ranu-ko ban ñapam-kan-a, chet'-leka-tä hâr-ko that very difficult-is. are-found-enough, men-they Seed-grains not khiti-a? Bujhauk'-kan-a adi ât-dâ pârti-gi tahän-a ita-bägår-tä. pase much land perhaps uncultivated will-remain seed-want-for. shall-till? It-seems

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

This year there was a famine in our country, and the people are in great want of food. From the month of Aghar¹ till Magh² there were small quantities of grain and rice-water, but only just sufficient. When those provisions ran out, the flowers of the Matkom³ and Sal trees were eaten for some time. When they had eaten all those, they subsisted on Terel, Tarop', Sinjo, and other jungle fruits. When they more of those, they for some time got along with could not find any roots of At,7 Aser,8 and Piska.9 At present they have dug up from the rice-fields and Much' potherbs,12 with shells, and they eat forest all Kantha,10 Garundi11 herbs and leaves such as those of Matha, 13 Podo, 14 Boe-bindi, 15 Sauri, 16 Orsa, 17 and so forth. This year the money-lenders do not give any loans, even at an interest of 250 per cent., and the husked rice is also very dear. How will the people be able to get on this year? It is impossible to get seed-corn, and how will it be possible to sow? It seems likely that much land will remain uncultivated for want of seed-corn.

In the southern districts, in Midnapore, Balasore, the Orissa Tributary States, and Singbhum, Santālī has come under the influence of Oriyā. Borrowed words therefore often assume a different aspect. Compare dhana, property; dina, day; mane, mind, etc., D between vowels has become r; thus, hurinich, the younger. The phonology is, however, on the whole the same as in the Standard. An initial \tilde{n} sometimes becomes y; thus, yam, get, in Morbhanj and Balasore. Note also forms such as ajak', for ach'ak', his. The demonstrative pronouns frequently end in n: thus we find noan, this, and so on. Such forms are very seldom met with in Standard Santālī. There is, generally speaking, a strong tendency to suffix the pronominal suffixes after the verbal tenses. On the whole, however, the dialect remains the same as the Standard, and it will be sufficient to print the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son received from Morbhanj in order to illustrate this southern and less correct form of Santālī.

¹ I.e., Aghan, November-December.

⁴ Diospyros tomentosa.

⁷ Zehneria umbellata.

¹⁰ Euphorbia granulata

¹³ Antidesma diandrum.

¹⁶ Polygonum glabrum.

² January-February.

Buchanania latifolia.

⁸ A jungle climbing plant.

¹¹ Acternanthera sessilis.

¹⁴ Ficus Cunia. is Randia dumetorum.

¹⁷ A certain wild plant used as a pot-herb.

³ Bassia latifolia.

⁶ Ægle marmelos.

Dioscorea oppositifolia.

Polygonum plebeium.

[No. 6.]

MUNDĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

SANTĀLĪ.

SPECIMEN VI.

(MORBHANJ, ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES.)

hâpân-kin tahä-kan-a. Un-kin mâtâ-rä Mit' hâr-rän barea kora Them-two among children-they-two were. boy man-of twoOne tinak' amak' dhana-rä ٠ä baba, met-ad-e-a, huriñich' apat-ä O father, thyproperty-in how-great the-little-one father-his-he said-to-him, bhāga iñ yam-a ona om-añ-mä.' Noan katha-rä uni ajak' hatiń-ka-tä dhana That word-on he self-of property divided-having share I shall get that give-me.' huriñich' kora-dâ khan-ge uni Kichhu dina em-at'-kin-a. un-kin-ä son-on-his-side that younger Some daysthenthem-two-he gave-to-them-two. mit'-ṭan sangiyan diśum-tä chalao-ka-tä samtao-ka-tä mit'-than dhan distantcountry-in gone-having one collected-having all property one-place urao-ked-ae. · Jâtà dhan bayadhane bebhora-tä jâtâ lucha-lamâț property expendwasted-he. property shamelessness-in allriotousness uni-revak' hoy-en-khan akal maran diśum-rä chaba-ket'-khan ona him-of arose-when famine bigcountry-in `that finished-having-when uni chalao-ka-tä ona diśum-rän-ich' Ona-iatä hoy-en-a. daśa. dukha that country-of-being gone-having Therefore became. condition unhappykiśan-hara-dâ śukari guti-y-en-tä uni kiśan-hara-thän-ä mit'-tan cultivatorswinethatservant-become-having cultivator-near-he one âkâe-hâ jâmak' uni-dâ Ândä kol-ked-e-y-ae. gupi-y-ä ovad-tä gât anyone-even food sent-him-he. him There herd to-tend-he field-in choklak'-tä lach'-ä jâmak' śukari-reyak' uni-dâ ban-ko em-ad-e-tä belly-he husks-with food swine-of not-they given-to-him-having hemane-an-a-e. män-tä päräch'-tae-a-e thought-he. saying fills-his-he

KĀRMĀLĪ OR KĀLHĀ.

There is a numerous caste of iron smelters in the Sonthal Parganas, Hazaribagh, and Manbhum which is known as the Kols or Kâlhäs. They call themselves hắr, men, and also kắlhä, which is the name given to them by the Santāls. The Hindūs call them Kol. In Manbhum and Hazaribagh, they also call themselves Kārmālēs. Their language has hitherto been classed as a dialect of Hō or Kol, and it is quite possible that some of the Kols enumerated in the districts in question do really speak that language. This must be inferred from the fact that specimens of Hō have been forwarded from the Sonthal Parganas. Most of the Kâlhäs in the Sonthal Parganas, Manbhum, and Hazaribagh, however, have nothing to do with the Hōs, but speak a dialect of Santālī. That dialect will in this Survey be called Kārmālī in order to avoid confusion with Hō or Kol. It is quite different from Kurmālī, the dialect of the Kurmīs of Hazaribagh, Manbhum, and other districts, which is a form of Magahī. See Vol. V., Part ii, pp. 145 and ff.

Kārmālī has been returned for the purposes of this Survey from the following districts:—

Sonthal Parga	anas							22,821
Hazaribagh								10,239
Manbhum					•			11,000
			y				TOTAL	44,060

The local returns give the name of the dialect as Kol, and it is possible that the figures may include some stray Hō immigrants. Their number cannot, however, be important.

Manbhum

. . . 3,770 Тотаь . 17,342

The principal home of the Kārmālēs is the south of the Sonthal Parganas and the north of Manbhum. In Hazaribagh they are found in scattered settlements in the south of the district.

The Kārmālī dialect does not much differ from ordinary Santālī. One good specimen, prepared by the Rev. A. Campbell, will be found below. It represents the language of the Kālhās of Manbhum. According to a list of Standard Words and Phrases prepared by the Rev. P. O. Bodding, the dialect is essentially the same in the Sonthal Parganas. The same is the case in Hazaribagh, to judge from a corrupt list forwarded from the district.

Pronunciation.—The sounds \hat{a} and o or \ddot{a} and e, respectively, are distinguished as in Standard Santālī. The neutralizing power of i and u is not so strong as in Standard Santālī; thus, buba and buba, father.

Diphthongs such as ae, áe, ao, are commonly simplified. Thus, äm-ē-mē, Standard äm-ae-me, give him; ākä-rän hápán, whose son? chalá-en-ē, Standard chalao-en-a-e, he went, etc. The change of d to r is common in the Sonthal Parganas; thus, huriñ, Manbhum hudiñ, small, etc. The Kâlhäs of the Sonthal Parganas have the same tendency as the Māhlēs to substitute á for ae and ao; thus, urá-pará, squander, in Manbhum udai-padai. Note also tahão-kan and tahã-kan, in Hazaribagh tahĩ-kan, was; hälär, Standard häräl, a male being, a man, and so forth.

The most important phonological peculiarities of the dialect are the changes of r to r; of initial \tilde{n} to n and l; and, in some cases, of r to l. Thus, $h\tilde{a}r$, Standard $h\tilde{a}r$, man; $\tilde{o}rak$, Standard $\tilde{o}rak$, house; $n\tilde{v}r$, Standard $\tilde{n}\tilde{v}r$, run; nam, Standard $\tilde{n}am$, get; lel, Standard $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}l$, see; luar, Standard ruar, return, and so forth.

Inflexion.—The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is regular. The genitive suffixes $\bar{\imath}ch'$ and ak' are in common use. Thus, $an\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}ch'$ $h\acute{a}p\acute{a}n$, his son; $i\~{n}-ak'$ $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}n-re$, before me; $b\bar{u}b\bar{a}-k'$, of a father. Note forms such as $\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$, this; $\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$, that one; $ak\ddot{a}$, who? $ch\bar{e}tak'$, what? and so forth.

The numerals six to ten are Aryan loan-words. 'Twenty' is $m\bar{\imath}t'$ $k\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$, and 'hundred' $m\acute{a}r\ddot{a}$ $k\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$.

The categorical a in verbal forms is generally dispensed with in the singular; thus, $tah\tilde{a}-kan-\tilde{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I was; $g\bar{u}j\bar{u}k'-kan-\tilde{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I die.

The causative particle is cho; thus, dāl-chōk'-kān-īñ, I am beaten.

The pronominal infix of the dative is sometimes replaced by the accusative infix; thus, meta-ked-e-y-e and met-ad-e-a, said to him; ema-akad-iñ-am, thou hast given to me. Meta and ema are fuller forms of män and äm, respectively, which are also used in Standard Santālī before the dative infixes. Forms such as meta-ked-e-y-e, he said to him, are not used by the Kâlhäs of the Sonthal Parganas, who say meta-w-i-e or meta-w-ad-e-e instead. The pronominal suffixes denoting the subject are often added to the verb and not to the word preceding it.

The suffix len of the past time occurs in the form nen; thus, $ch\bar{a}l\bar{o}$ -en- $i\tilde{n}$ and $ch\bar{a}l\bar{o}$ -nen- $i\tilde{n}$, I went.

Note also forms such as mēn-īñ-ā, I am; hēnām-gi-ā, thou art, and so forth.

In most respects, however, the dialect is regular, and it will be sufficient to print one specimen in order to illustrate it.

¹ Note buba-n, my father; babu-m, thy father; babu-t-tet', his father. The Kālhās of the Sonthal Parganas use buba throughout; thus, buba-m, thy father. 'My father' is, however, ban.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

KĀRMĀLĪ DIALECT.

Santālī.

DISTRICT MANBHUM.

(Rev. A. Campbell, 1899.)

hudiñich' Adâ tahī-kan-a-kin. barea kora hâpân Mit. hâr-ren young-the were-they-two. And sons boy One man-of twodhan-daulat ja-gi hatiñ hoyok'-tiñ-a 'ä buba, babu-t-tet' meta-ked-e-y-e. 'O father, property(-of) which share will-come-mine said-to-him, father-his-the hatiñ-at'dhan babu-t-tet' ach'-ak' Adâ dan-bakhra-ka-te ema-ka-tiñ-mi.' divided-to-And father-his-the self-of property give-mine. divided-having samtå-ka-te sangiñ hudiñich'-dâ sanom din tavâm-te kin-e. Thora allcollected-having far back-on young-the days them-two. Few dhan-daulat rijh-tamasa-re ande ach'-ak' âdâk-chalâ-en-e, ar disom-te debauchery-in wealth there self-of and out-went-he, country-to udai-padai-chaba-ket'-khan disom-re adi ana tahas-nahas-ked-e. Sanom squandering-finished-having-when that country-in heavy Allwasted. disom-ren mit' nandhâ-en-e. Ar ana rangejok' durbich akal-ked-e ar began-he. And country-of that oneto-feel-hunger dearth famished andsän-ka-te tahî-en-ak'-e, ar ani ach-'ak' khät-ku-re sukri gârkhi swine to-tend fields-in man-with gone-having remained-he, and he self-of Ar sukri-ku jâm-et' choklak'-te bik'-e men-an-a, kâl-ked-e-y-e. eating husks-with to-satisfy-himself-he wished, swineAnd sent-him-he. hich'-ad-e-te disa-re Khan-gi ema-led-e-a. âkä-hẫ ban-ku remembrance-in come-for-him-having gave-to-him. Then anyone not-they kamia-ku-dâ jâm-saräj-laka ' buba-ñ-ren-dâ amin-āmin achu men-ked-e, eating-leaving-like hired servants-as-for several'father-my-of said-he, hena-ta-ku-a, ar iñ-dâ nande rangech'-te gujuk'-kan-iñ. Akä-tora sän-ka-te dying-am-I. Nowgone-having hunger-with here and I is-their, ar sojha-re iñ serma-reak' buba, "ä met-ae-a, $i\tilde{n}$ bubañ andthyheaven-of "O father, I say-to-him-will, lekan-dâ ban-kan-iñ. Am-ren am-ren hâpân numok' gunah-akad-iñ. Ar-dâ son to-be-called worthy not-am-I. Thy thysinned-I. Now-as-to birit'-ka-te achu kamia laka dâhâ-ka-iñ-mi." babu-t-then chalâ-en-e. Adâ And arisen-having father-his-near went-he. keep-me." 3 hired servant as babu-t-tet' ani läl-ka-te mãvã tahî-kan-ri-gi sangiñ-re-y-e Ar father-his-the seen-having pity was-when distance-at-he And châk'-ad-e-a-e. Hâpânharup'-ka-te nir-sän-en-e \mathbf{ar} hich'-ad-e-te kissed-him-he. Sonembraced-having ran-went-he and come-to-him-having

tet'-e män-ked-e, · ä buba, serma-reak' ar am sojha-re-ñ gunah-akad-iñ. O father, heaven-of andthythe-he said, before-I sinned-I, hâpân nutum-ok' lekan-dâ ban-kan-iñ.' ar-dâ am-ren Khan-gi thyto-be-called son worthy not-am-I. novo-as-to Then ach'-ren kamia-ku meta-ket'-ku-e, ' sanom-khân babu-t-tet' bhali lugri self-of servants said-to-them-he, ' all-from father-his-the goodcloth sârâk'-e-pe, ti-re agu-ka-te ar angthi sârâk'-e-pe, \mathbf{ar} put-on-him-you, hand-on ring put-on-him-you, brought-having and and kata-re-dâ juta såråk'-e-pe. \mathbf{Ar} asul-akad-e damkâm gåj-e-pe. \mathbf{Ar} And fattedfoot-on shoes put-on-him-you. calfkill-him-you. And khusi-raska-ma-bon. Nại hậpân-iñ gâch'-len-tahĩ-kan-e, jâm-ka-te jivet' rejoice-let-us. This son-my dead-was-he. eaten-having andliving Adâ khusi-raska-en-a-ku. luar-a-kan-e; at'-len tahî-kan-e, adâ nam-akan-e.' returned-has-he; lost was-he, now found-has-been-he.' And rejoiced-they.

Ar maranich' hâpân-tet' khät-re tahî-kan-e. orak'-te Ar hich'-sorok'-kan field-in was-he. And house-to coming-near-being And elder-one son-the anäch' anjâm-ked-e. Khan mit'-tan kamia hakâ-sor-ka-te iokha siriñ time singing and dancing heard-he. Thenone servant called-near-having kuli-ked-e-a-e, 'chidak'-ku anka-ed-a?' ∙Adâ-e met-ad-e-a, 'bâkâ-m-е thus-do?' And-he said-to-him, 'younger-brother-thy-he asked-him-he, 'why-they hich'-akan-e, ar babu-m-dâ ani bäs-gi nam-ked-e-te asulich' damkâm gur-akadcome-has-he, and father-thy him well found-him-having fatted-the calf killed-has-Mahaj-ki ani-dâ . idri-en-te bâlâk'-hũ ban räb än-len-e. Ar-då babu-tangry-becoming to-enter-even not agreed-he. Then father-Butheit. sãorâ-ked-e-a-e. Khan-ge babu-t-tet' men-achur-adâdâk-ka-te tet' his-the come-out-having persuaded-him-he. Then father-his-the said-returned-todin kona namin serma kona am-ak'-iñ kami-kid-iñ. 'lel-mi, namin e-a-e, 'see, so-many days from so-many years from thee-of-I service-did-I. hukum mit'-tan-hũ ban talâ-akad-iñ. Tao-ri-hũ iñ-ren gati-ku tuluch' one-even not transgressed-I. me-of friends with to-make-merry Still ema-akad-iñ-am. Mahai män-ka-te mit'-tan märâm hâpân tanich' hữ ban goat young or-such-like even not given-hast-to-me-thou. Butjâm-chaba-ked-e, ani hich'-en-khan nai hâpân-mi bachkar-ku tuluch' am-ak' \mathbf{dhan} he came-when with thee-of property eat-finished-he, harlots this son-thy Ar-dâ meta-ked-e-a-e, 'ä bacha, am-dâ gur-ad-e-am. asul-mota damkâm said-to-him-he, 'O son, thou killedst-for-him-thou. Then calf fattedsanom am-ak'-kan-gi-a. Khusi-raska-dâ hena-m-gi-a, iñ-ak' iae-jug in-then \mathbf{ar} thine-is-indeed. To-make-merry art-thou, and me-of allalways me-with gâch'-gi tahĩ-kan-e, adâ jivet'-en-e; jarur-gi tahî-kan-a. Ani bâkâ-m-dâ This younger-brother-thy deadwas-he, and alive-became-he; proper was nam-en-e.' at'-ge tahî-kan-e, ar-e was-he, and-he found-was-he.' lost

MAHLE.

The Māhlēs are a caste of labourers, palanquin-bearers and workers in bamboo in Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal. They speak a dialect of Santālī.

The Māhlē or Māhilī dialect has been returned for the purposes of this Survey from the following districts:

Birbhum	•			•					650
Sonthal Parganas				•					17,237
Manbhum									10,794
Morbhanj State .		•	•		•	•			280
							\mathbf{T}_0	TAL	28,961

The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were widely different and are as follows:—

Burdwan									•	,				180
Birbhum							•		•					322
Midnapore														1,681
24-Pargana	s			•										369
Rajshahi					•									22
Dinajpur														282
Jalpaiguri								•,						1,137
Darjeeling	,													180
Bogra														116
Malda					,									117
Sonthal Par	rgana	S			•									8,643
Angul and	Khon	dmals				•								1
Hazaribagh														9
Ranchi				•					•					9
Manbhum														1,169
Singbhum														2,851
Kuch Bihar	•	•			•		•							12
Orissa Trib	utary	State	s			•			•	•				1,642
Chota Nag	pur T	'ribute	ry 8	States	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	59
											To	TAL		18,801

Even the Census figures are probably too high, the name of the caste having, in many cases, been entered as denoting language.

The principal home of the Māhlē dialect is the central and southern portion of the Sonthal Parganas and the adjoining parts of Birbhum and Manbhum.

Specimens have been received from Birbhum, the Nilgiri State, and the Sonthal Parganas. The Nilgiri specimens were written in a corrupt Santālī, and those received from Birbhum contained a considerable admixture of Aryan words. I have therefore only reproduced a version of the Parable from the Sonthal Parganas. A list of Standard Words and Phrases has been prepared with the utmost care and accuracy by the Rev. P. O. Bodding. It will be found on pp. 240 and ff.

Māhlē is closely related to Kārmālī. Among themselves the Māhlēs to some extent make use of a kind of secret language, substituting peculiar words and expressions for the common ones. Thus they say thak instead of taka, a rupee; $p\bar{t}t\bar{t}s$ instead of $pais\bar{a}$, a pice; mach instead of pais, half a seer; leka instead of ana, an anna; lala, warm, instead of dal, beat, and so forth. Our information about this slang, which only concerns the vocabulary, is not, however, sufficient for describing it in detail, and I therefore turn to some peculiarities of Māhlē grammar.

MĀHLĒ.

75

Pronunciation.—O and \vec{a} , e and \vec{a} , respectively, were not distinguished in the original specimen. Mr. Bodding's list, however, shows that Māhlē in this respect agrees with Standard Sanfālī.

An a is often pronounced as the a in 'all.' Thus, $\bar{a}p\hat{a}-t$, Standard $\bar{a}pa-t$, his father; $l\bar{a}t\hat{a}r$, Standard $l\bar{a}t\bar{a}r$, down; $m\bar{a}r\hat{a}n$, Standard $m\bar{a}ran$, big; $\bar{a}m$ and $\bar{a}m$, Standard $\bar{a}m$, thou; $-t\hat{a}m$ -, Standard $-t\bar{a}m$ -, thy.

The colour of vowels is sometimes apt to change, probably under the influence of neighbouring sounds. Thus the inanimate pronominal infix ak occurs as ek and ak. Compare also forms such as $ken-i\tilde{n}$, I am; $k\tilde{a}n-\tilde{a}m$, thou art; $ken-\tilde{e}$, he is; $kan-\tilde{a}-b\tilde{o}n$, we are, etc. The neutral vowels are treated as in Kārmālī.

Diphthongs are often simplified in the same way as in Kārmālī. Thus, āemā, Standard ard āimāi, woman; -tā-, Standard -tae-, his; dāl-kēñ, Standard dāl-kē-a-ñ, I may strike; ken-ē, Standard kan-ā-e, he is; samṭā-ke-tē, Standard samṭāo-ka-tā, having collected, and so on.

In $h\bar{e}jok$ ', Standard hijuk', come; $g\bar{a}jak$ ', Standard gujuk', die, Māhlē has preserved forms which are lost in Standard.

N and l correspond to Standard \tilde{n} in the beginning of words. Thus, $n\bar{i}nd\bar{a}$, Standard $\tilde{n}\bar{i}nd\bar{a}$, night; $l\bar{u}t\bar{u}m$, Standard $\tilde{n}\bar{u}t\bar{u}m$, name. In Birbhum we also find forms such as $\tilde{n}am$, get.

R becomes r as in Kārmālī. Thus, $h\tilde{a}r$, Standard $h\tilde{a}r$, man; $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, Standard $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, boy. It is dropped as in Hō in $d\bar{u}rup$ and $d\bar{u}p$, sit, in which word the r is an old infix and does not belong to the base. Compare, on the other hand, $g\ddot{a}r\ddot{a}$, Standard $g\ddot{a}d\ddot{a}$, duck.

R often becomes l; thus, luwar, Standard $ru\bar{q}r$, return; $l\bar{q}r$, Standard $r\bar{q}r$, to speak. In bet, Standard beret, arise, the r is an old infix.

Inflexion.—The declension of nouns and pronouns is mainly regular. Dative suffixes such as $k\bar{e}$ in Nilgiri are, of course, Aryan. Note genitive suffixes such as $\bar{i}ch'$ and $in\bar{i}ch'$, and the ablative suffix $ket\bar{e}$; thus, $\bar{u}n\bar{i}-ich'$ $h\hat{a}p\hat{a}n$, his son; $\bar{a}p\hat{a}-t-in\bar{i}ch'$, of the father; $m\bar{e}s\bar{e}t-ket\bar{e}$, from his sister. 'I and thou' is usually $\bar{a}l\hat{a}n$, and not $\bar{a}l\bar{a}n$. Note also the dative infixes $\bar{a}n$, to me; $\bar{a}m$, to thee, and the genitive infixes $t\bar{i}n$, my; $t\bar{a}m$, thy; $t\bar{a}n$, his.

The numerals 'six' and following, and, in counting, often also the first five, are commonly Aryan loan-words.

The conjugation of verbs is also regular, though some forms have a peculiar appearance under the influence of the rules of pronunciation mentioned above.

The causative suffix is $s\hat{a}$; thus, $d\hat{a}l$ - $s\hat{a}k$ '-ken- $i\tilde{n}$, I am caused to be struck, I am struck.

The categorical a is often dropped, specially in the singular, or else replaced by an \tilde{e} ; thus, $d\tilde{a}l$ - $\tilde{i}\tilde{n}$, I shall strike; $h\tilde{a}n\tilde{a}\tilde{n}$ - \tilde{e} , I am.

The usual form of the verb substantive has already been mentioned. 'I am,' 'I exist,' is mēnēnē-ē, or hānān-ē. Compare Santālī mēn-ak,' and hēnak.'

The base $h\bar{e}n$ is also, in addition to $t\bar{a}h\bar{a}n$, used in the formation of compound tenses; thus, $d\bar{a}l-h\bar{e}n-\bar{\imath}n$, I was striking.

The present tense of finite verbs is formed by adding the suffix et'; thus, $d\bar{a}l\text{-}et'$ - $\bar{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I strike. The e of et' is dropped before pronominal infixes. If the base ends in a vowel, a very short e is, however, heard. Thus, $d\bar{a}l\text{-}d\text{-}ek'\text{-}\bar{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I strike it; $d\bar{a}l\text{-}d\text{-}ak'\text{-}am$, thou strikest it; $d\bar{a}l\text{-}d\text{-}\bar{e}\text{-}\bar{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I strike him. The inanimate infix ek', ak', etc., is apparently used much more freely than in Standard. Thus it is used in order to denote a direct, inanimate object. Compare the suffixes lak' and kak' in Standard. Note also compound forms such as $d\bar{a}l\text{-}et'\text{-}ken\text{-}\bar{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I am striking; $d\bar{a}l\text{-}\bar{e}\text{-}ken\text{-}\bar{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I strike him.

The past tenses are regularly formed. Thus, $d\bar{a}l$ -ked-ek'- $i\tilde{n}$, I struck it; $d\bar{a}l$ -ked- $e\bar{i}$, I struck him; $d\bar{a}l$ - $k\acute{a}d$ - $a\acute{k}$ '- $a\acute{m}$, thou struckest it. Forms such as $d\bar{a}l$ -kek'- $i\tilde{n}$, I struck; $d\bar{a}l$ -lek'- $i\tilde{n}$, I had struck, show that the real suffixes of the past time are ke and le, as has already been inferred from the state of affairs in Standard Santālī. In $dh\bar{e}r$ $d\bar{a}l$ -kek'- \bar{e} - $i\tilde{n}$, many stripes I-struck him, both the inanimate and the animate infixes have been added.

Note also medial forms such as chālā-en-īñ, chālā-nen-īñ, and chālā-len-īñ, I went.

The suffix of the perfect is aken, akan, etc., but the initial a is often dropped after vowels. Thus, $d\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ -ken- $\bar{i}\tilde{n}$, I have walked. A very short a or e is, however, generally heard, and the final vowel of the base is distinctly lengthened before the suffix.

For further details the specimen which follows should be consulted.

MUŅDĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

SANTĀLĪ.

MAHLE DIALECT.

(SONTHAL PARGANAS.)

hâr-rän barea kora gidra men-en-tey-a-kin. Ar un-kin mud-rä man-of boy children were-his-they-two. And them-two among hudinich' apât-tät' met-âd-e-y-e, 'baba, oka iñak' dhân-bakhra small-the father-his-the said-to-him-he 'father, what my property-share be-mine-will sä-dâ äm-ke-tiñ-me.' Adâ apâ-t ach'-ak' dhân hatiñ-ad-akin-e. Then father-his self-of property divided-to-them-two. Few give-mine.' that-as-to sangiñ disom-te-y-e odon-chalâsamţâ-ke-te din tayâm-te hudiñ gidra sanâmak' collected-having distant country-to-he out-wentdays back-on small son allar ândä-dâ lucha-lamât-ke-te ach'-ak' dhân tahas-nahas-ket'-te-a. thereself-of property squandered-his. andriotously he, And sanâm-ak' kharâch-ket'-khan ona disom-re bari $\tilde{a}t$ akal hoi-en-e, ar uni-dâ spent-had-when that country-in very strong famine became, and ona disom-rän mit'-täch' rayât-thän rängäjak' ähap'-en-e. Tâbä began. Then thatcountry-of oneryot-with hungry-to-be gone-having khät-rä sukri atiñ kol-ked-ek'-e. Uni-dâ sukri-ko japâk'-en-e. Uni-dâ ach'-ak' clinged. Heself-of field-in swine to-feed sent-him. swine jâm-et' taha-ken-a hara-ta jâm-jâm-bij-ok'-lagit' män-hen-e, män-khan ona-hã husk-with eating-eating-being-filled-for thought, but that-even ban äm-å-hen-a-ko. Khan-ge chetâ-ke-te män-ket'-e, anyone-even not gave-to-him-they. Then having-come-to-senses said, · my jâm-ak' saräj-ok'-ken-teko-a, tinak' munis-ak' iñ-dâ apu-ñ-rän foodspared-is-their, father-my-of how-many servants-of and me-as-to nândä rängäch'-te gâjâk'-ken-iñ. Achha, bät'-ke-te apu-ñ-thän chalâk'-iñ ar Well, arisen-having father-my-with here hunger-with dying-am-I. go-will and samân-re kại-ket'-iñ. Ar-dâ am-ich' "baba, serma-rak' ar am will-say-to-him-I, "father, heaven-of and thy presence-in sinned-I. Again thee-of gidra lutum-ok' leg ban-ken-iñ. Am-ich' mit'-täch' munis leka dâhâ-ñ-me."' son to-be-called worthy not-am-I. Thee-of servant like keep-me-thou."' one Khan-ge uni bät'-en-e häch'-en-e. Mät-åk'-me uni sangiñ-re \mathbf{ar} apâ-t-thän hearoseand father-his-to came. Say-you he distance-at Then män-en-re uni-rän läl-nam-ked-ek'-e mãyã apâ-t-tät' häch'-ad-ek'-a him-of father-his-that to-see-got-him and pity came-to-him nir-sän-ke-te håbår-ked-ek'-e ar châk'-châk'-ad-ek'-e. Gidra-dâ apâ-t-lich' and run-gone-having embraced-him and kissed-repeatedly-to-him. Son father-his-to met-âd-ek'-e 'baba, iñ-dâ serma-rak' ar am samân-re kại-ket'-iñ. Am-ich' gidra said-to-him, 'father, I Thee-of son heaven-of and thy presence-in sinned-I.

ar-dâ ban-ken-iñ.' lutum-ok' leg Män-khan apå-t-tät'-då ach'-rän guti to-be-called worthy more not-I-am-I.' Butfather-his-the self-of servants met-od-oko-y-e, 'sanâm khân bäs angrâp dän-agu-hât'-ke-te from good cloth given-brought-quickly-haven put-on-him-you, said-to-them. 'all uni-ak' angthi, \mathbf{ar} janga-re ti-re juta sârâk'-ä-pä. \mathbf{Ar} dä and hishand-on ring, and foot-on shoe put-on-him-you. Andcome iâm-tä kusik'-ma-bon. Karân nĩk'ĩ iñ-ich' gidra-da gâch'-len-hen-e, eaten-having make-merry-let-us. Because just-this me-of son ar-ha jivet' achur-en-e; at'-len-hen-e, ar-ha nam-luar-eken-e.' Khan-ge un-ko-dâ returned; lost-had-been, and found-again-was.' and alive Then they kusi lagå-en-ko. to-make-merry began.

Män-khan uni-rän marån gidra-tät'-då khät-re men-en-e. Adå orak'-te häch'bigson-the field-in was. And house-to comehänät'-ke-te bajna ar änäch' ajâm-nam-ket'-e. Khan-ge mit'täch' munis hâhâclose-having music and dancing to-hear-got. Then one servant calledke-te kuli-ked-ek'-e, chet' hâk'-kan-a?' Uni-dâ met-âd-ek'-e, having 'what asked-him. becoming-is?' Hesaid-to-him, 'bâkâ-m häch'-ken-e, ar apu-m-dâ bhâj-ket'-e, uni boge nam-achur-'younger-brother-thy come-has, and father-thy feast-made, him well ked-e-tä.' Khan-ge edre-en-e ar bâlâk' ban räbän-nen-e. Ona-iate him-having. Thengot-angry-he andgo-in notwould-he. Therefore apâ-t-tät' odon-häch'-ke-te bonso-ked-ek'-e. Män-khan uni-dâ lâr-achuruni-rän him-of father-his-the out-come-having entreated-him. Buthe speak-returnapâ-t-lich' met-âd-ek'-e, 'nä-lel-me, ninak' serma am-ak' having-made father-his-to said-to-him, · lo, these-many years thee-of service agu-ket'-iñ, ar am-ak' hukum tis-rä-hå iñ-dâ bañ talâ-ket'-iñ. Sä-rä-hå iñ-dâ brought-I, and thee-of order ever-even I not-I transgressed-I. tis-ha-thar mit'-tach' maram hapan tanich' hẫ ban em-âd-iñ-âm, jämån iñ-rän ever-even one goat young or-the-like even not gavest-to-me-thou, so-that me-of gate-ko tuluch' kusi-kok'-iñ. Män-khan kusbi-ko tuluch' am-ak' dhân friends with I-might-make-merry. Butharlots with thee-of property wastedket'-tâm-e nui gidra-me häch'-en-tâm-rä-dâ, bhâj-kâk'-âm.' Män-khan uni-dâ thy-he son-thy feast-madest-thou.' coming-thy-in, Butmet-âd-ek'-e, 'bachha, am-dâ jae-ge iñ-tuluch' men-âm-a, ar iñ-ak' sanâmsaid-to-him, child, thoualways me-with art-thou, and mineallak'-ko-dâ am-ak'-kan-ge-a. Nit-dâ kusi raskaji men-en-tabon-a; än-tä things thine-are. Now mirth gladness was-our; because this-very bâkâ-m-dâ gâch'-len-hen-ech', ar-ha jivet'-en-e; at'-ken-henech', ar younger-brother-thy dead-was-who. now alive-became; lost-was-who. now nam-eken-e.' found-was-he.

MUŅDĀRĪ.

Muṇḍārī is the dialect spoken by the tribe who call themselves $h\hat{a}_r\hat{a}-k\bar{o}$, or, 'men.' The number of speakers is about half a million.

Muṇḍārī literally means the language of the Muṇḍās. According to Mr. Risley,

'the name Muṇḍā is of Sanskrit origin. It means headman
of a village, and is a titular or functional designation used
by the members of the tribe, as well as by outsiders, as a distinctive name much in the
same way as the Santals call themselves Māñjhī, the Bhumij Sardār, and the Khambu of
the Darjiling hills Jimdār.'

The principal home of the Muṇḍās is the southern and western portion of Ranchi District. There are, moreover, speakers in Palamau and the south-east of Hazaribagh. Towards the south we find Muṇḍārī spoken side by side with Hō in the north of Singbhum. Speakers are further found scattered over the Chota Nagpur Tributary States, especially in Bonai and Sarguja, and further to the south-west, in Bamra and Sambalpur and the neighbouring districts of the Central Provinces. Emigrants have further brought the dialect to Jalpaiguri, Dinajpur, Rajshahi, the 24-Parganas, and other districts of the Bengal Presidency, and to the tea-gardens of Assam. The Muṇḍās of Ranchi assert that they have come from the north-east.

With regard to sub-dialects Muṇḍārī can be compared with Santālī. The difference is mainly to be found in the vocabulary borrowed from Aryan neighbours, and in the grammatical modifications occasioned by the neighbouring Aryan forms of speech.

The most idiomatic Mundārī is spoken in Mankipatti, a tract of land to the southeast of the town of Ranchi, comprising Tamar and a part of Singbhum. The Mundārī of Palamau is almost identical.

In Hazaribagh and in Sambalpur and Bamra the dialect has come under the influence of the neighbouring Aryan forms of speech. In all essential points, however, it agrees with the Mundari of Ranchi and Palamau. The same is the case in the State of Patna.

In the State of Sonpur the Mundas are found scattered in villages bordering on the jungles. They have originally come from Chota Nagpur and must formerly have spoken the same dialect as their cousins in Ranchi. At the present day, however, they have almost entirely forgotten their old speech, and they now use a form of Oriya, intermixed with Mundari words.

The Kurukhs in the neighbourhood of the town of Ranchi have adopted Mundārī as their home tongue. Their dialect is known under the denomination of $Horo-li\bar{a}$ jhagar. We have no information about its character. It is, however, probable that it is identical with the dialect spoken by the so-called 'Kera-Uraons' to the east of Ranchi. Father de Smet is, so far as I am aware, the only authority who mentions that form of Mundārī. He states that the principal peculiarity of the dialect is that an r is substituted for the final t' or d of verbal tenses; thus, $j\bar{a}m-ker-\bar{a}-m$ instead of $j\bar{a}m-ked-\bar{a}-m$, thou atest.

During the preliminary operations of this Survey, a Kol dialect called Bhuyau was reported to exist in Sambalpur. No specimens of any form of speech bearing this name

have been forwarded, and no such dialect occurs in the Sambalpur tables of the last Census. It is therefore probable that Bhuyau is the dialect of the Muṇḍā Bhuiyas of the district, and the Bhuyau figures have, accordingly, been shown under Muṇḍārī.

Closely related forms of speech are spoken by the Bhumij tribe of Singbhum and neighbourhood; by the Bīrhārs of Hazaribagh, Ranchi, Singbhum and adjoining districts, and by most of the so-called Kōḍās. Those dialects will therefore be dealt with immediately after Muṇḍārī. The dialect of the Hōs or Laṛkā Kols of Singbhum is also so closely connected with Muṇḍārī that it can almost be described as a sub-dialect of that form of speech.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey, Mundari was Number of speakers. spoken as a vernacular in the following districts:

Nui	mper of spea	ikers.		spoken	as	a ve	rnac	ular	in 1	the	fol	lowin	g distri	ets:-
Ber	ngal Presider	icy-											0	
	Hazaribagh												125	
	Ranchi	•											322,148	
	Palamau				•								30,000	
	Jashpur St		•										100	
	Bonai State												478	
0.0	Sarguja St	ate	•		•								395	
Cer	atral Provinc	es—						Tota	l Ber	ngal	Pre	esidenc	· ·	353,246
	Sambalpur												7,500	
•	Sakti .											•	700	
	Bamra												13,569	
	Rairakhol	•	•										312	
	Sonpur	•	•	•	•	•	•		•				1,250	
	Patna	•		•	•	•	•						250	
								Tota	al Ce	ntra	Pı	ovince	es .	23,581
												Тота	u .	376,827

Of the 7,500 speakers returned from Sambalpur, 1,500 were stated to speak Bhuyau. Outside the area where it is a vernacular Mundari was returned from the following districts:—

Beng	al Preside	ncy-	-		200								
	Jalpaiguri								_			8,965	
	Angul and	Kho	ndm	als		•			·		:	46	
Cent	ral Provin	ces—											9,011
	Kalahandi		•,										40
Assa	m-												10
	Cachar Pl	ains		•								896	
	Sylhet	•	•		•	•						300	
	Kamrup			•								200	
	Darrang					•						2,300	
	Nowgong	•									•	1,350	
		•	•	•								2,800	
	Lakhimpu	ır	•		•	•	•	•				12,800	
	•												
													20,646
			•							G	KAND	TOTAL	. 29,697

	läri spoken at		•										376,827	
Muņ	ļārī spoken al	broad	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			29,697	
									T	DTAL			406,524	
The con	responding	figu	res	at the	las	t Ce	nsus	of 19	01 v	vere a	s fo	ollows:	_	•
Beng	al Presidency	<u> </u>		•										
	Burdwan		•	.•	•	•	•	•		•	•	835		
	Birbhum .	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		214		
	Bankura .	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		61		
	Midnapore	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		510		
1	Hoogly .	•	•	•	•		•	•				670		
	Howrah .	•	•	•		•						79		
	4-Parganas	•	•					-	•	•		4,490		
	Vadia t	•										42		
	Iurshidabad	•										224		
	essore .											4		
	Khulna .											412		
1	Rajshahi .											4,255		
	Dinajpur									· .		3,528		
J	alpaiguri								- 1			10,290		
	Darjeeling											3,783		
	Rangpur .							- 0		•	•	687		
	dogra .			100					•	•	•	1,421		
	Pabna .	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	8		
	Dacca .	-	•	•		. •	•	•	•	•	•			
	Backergunge	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		84		
ć	hittagong Hi	11 Tree	•	•	•	• '	•	•	•	•	. •	118		
	atna .	II Tra	CUS	. •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	16		
	Bhagalpur	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2		
		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 809		
	urnea .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	96		
	Malda .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		63		
	onthal Parga		:		•		•	•			•	849		
	and Kl	hondm	ıals	•		•		•	•	•		619		
	Iazaribagh	•	•	•	•							7,910		
	lanchi .	•					•					298,611		
	Palamau .		•					•				8,524		
	fanbhum											1,886		
S	ingbhum											32,743		
	Cuch Bihar				•							2		
	rissa Tributa	ry Sta	tes								_	837		
C	hota Nagpur	Tribu	tarv	States								18,576		
. I	Ill Tippera						0					125		
	11	5 0	- 7	10.5		- 3		-	•		٠.			
							Total	Benga	al Pr	esiden	су		403,383	
					10	*					roser N			8
	al Provinces-	-												
	ambalpur	•		•	٠.			• •				10,844		
8	akti .	•		•								44		
S	arangarh											22		8500
	amra .	• • •		•								6,023		
	airakhol			0.000								825	**	
	onpur .			12					100			594		
	atna .	•	-			-)		•		261		
	alahandi			•	•		•	•	•	•	•	146		*0
	Thumanut	•	•		•	•	•	. :	•	•	•	7.40		

Ass	am—												
	Cachar Plains											1,450	
	Sylhet .											1,027	
	Goalpara .	•	٠.	•	٠.	•	•			•		9	
	Kamrup .		٠.									468	
	Darrang .									•		6,642	
	Nowgong											608	
	Sibsagar .						•		•	• -		5,438	7, 14
	Lakhimpur						•			•		21,698	
	North Cachar		•	•		•		•	•	•	•	42	
	Naga Hills		٠.	•		•				•	•	29	
		4					,	Total	l Ass	am	· •		37,411
		5	35	1				GRAND	То	TAL	•		459,553

It has been found convenient to add to this total some speakers who have been returned under the head of Kol, and who cannot be shown to speak any other Mundā dialects, viz.—

Assam				•				•	1,169	
United Provinces								•	3	
Berar (Bassim)			٠.						19	
7	,									
					,	Tora	L			1,191

The total number of speakers of Mundārī can therefore be put down at 460,744. It is, of course, possible that the speakers of 'Kol' do not belong to Mundārī, but are Kālhās. Their number is, however, so small that no great harm can be done in showing them under that language.

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MUNDĀRĪ.

There is no written Mundārī literature. The New Testament and the first books of the Old Testament have been translated into the language by the Rev. A. Nottrott. They have been printed, in Dēvanāgarī type, at the Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta, 1881—1899.

Mundārī is, like Santālī, a dialect of the language which I have called Kherwārī. In most respects it agrees with Santālī, and I shall therefore only draw attention to those minor points in which the two dialects differ from each other.

Pronunciation.—The old Mundari grammars are very inaccurate in reproducing the various sounds of the dialect. Father Hoffmann's grammar has considerably advanced our knowledge of the phonology of the dialect, and there are only some few points left, about which we cannot as yet judge with absolute certainty. In dealing with them I have been fortunate enough to be able to make use of a specimen and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in the so-called Kōdā of Birbhum, for which I am indebted to the Rev. P. O. Bodding of Mohulpahari. It represents a form of speech which, in all essential points, is Mundārī. Compare below, p. 108. I have, therefore, consulted Mr. Bodding's list of words in preparing Father Hoffmann's Mundārī list for the press. The specimens, on the other hand, have been printed as I have received them, with the exception of some few minor details to which attention will be drawn in the ensuing remarks.

The sounds \ddot{a} and e, \acute{a} and o, respectively, have not been distinguished in the specimens. Mr. Bodding's Kōdā list shows that Muṇḍārī in this respect agrees with Santālī, and I have therefore introduced the signs \ddot{a} and \acute{a} in the list, but not in the specimens, where I have followed Father Hoffmann in using e for \ddot{a} and e, and e for \acute{a} and e.

Long and neutral vowels have not been separately marked. Mr. Bodding's Kōdā texts, however, show that Muṇḍārī also in this respect agrees with Santālī. The neutral vowels are also mentioned in Father Hoffmann's grammar.

The laws of harmonic sequence are apparently the same as in Santālī. Compare $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, boy; $k\bar{u}r\bar{i}$, girl; in-kin, these two; en-ko, these; $d\bar{a}l$ -ok, being struck; $k\bar{a}j\bar{i}$ -uk, being said, and so forth.

E and i, o and u, respectively, are, moreover, often interchanged where no reason can be shown to account for the fact. Thus, sērmā and sīrmā, heaven; sāngāl and singāl, fire; orong and urung, to drive out, etc. Compare also chikan, Santālī chekan, what? bīrīt, Santālī beret, arise; upuniā, Santālī pōneā, four; ā-bū, Santālī ā-bō, we, and so forth.

An o corresponds to Santālī e in om-āi-mē, give him. Compare Asurī ov-ai-me.

The e of the verbal suffixes et and en is commonly changed to ya and further to ja; thus, $l\bar{e}l$ -jad-i- \bar{a} , (I) see him; $s\bar{e}n$ -ok-jan- \bar{a} -e, he went.

Muṇḍārī has preserved fuller forms of many words. Compare hāṇā, Santālī hāṇ, man (compare Santālī hāṇā-hāṇā, every man); jīlū, Santālī jēl, deer; upuniā, Santālī pōneā, four; apīā, Santālī pāā, three; lāich', Santālī lāch', belly, and so forth.

An h is often prefixed to words beginning with a vowel, especially in western districts; thus, $h\bar{e}r$ and $\bar{e}r$, sow; $h\bar{e}s\bar{i}$ and $\bar{e}s\bar{i}$, twenty.

A t is used in some cases in which Santālī has k, e.g., in the copula tan, is, and in several verbal suffixes. Compare the remarks under the head of Verbs, below. Note also the use of ch corresponding to Santālī t in words such as $ch\bar{t}m\bar{t}n$, how many?

An initial \tilde{n} becomes n, and an initial n is further often changed to l; thus, $n\bar{a}m$, Santālī $\tilde{n}\bar{a}m$, get; $n\bar{e}l$ and $l\bar{e}l$, Santālī $\tilde{n}\bar{a}l$, see; $n\bar{u}t\bar{u}m$ and $l\bar{u}t\bar{u}m$, name. Compare Kārmālī and Māhlē. According to Father de Smet, however, forms such as $\tilde{n}\bar{a}m$ are used in some localities.

Final \tilde{n} and n often become $\dot{n}g$, i.e., probably \dot{n} . Thus $\dot{i}ng$, I; $n\ddot{\imath}-k\ddot{\imath}ng$, these two. Palatal \tilde{n} and dental n are, however, in many localities retained in this position. The old final \tilde{n} of the pronoun $\dot{\imath}\tilde{n}$, I, is, moreover, usually restored before the categorical a and suffixes beginning with a, thus, $\dot{\imath}\tilde{n}-ak'$, my.

The cerebral d between vowels is interchangeable with r; thus, $h\bar{u}d\bar{i}n$ and $h\bar{u}r\bar{i}n$, small. The cerebral r is used in the same words as in Santālī. The old infix r has been dropped in $d\bar{u}p$, Santālī durup, sit.

Aspirated letters are used as in Santālī. The aspiration in borrowed words is often dropped in Mankipatti.

The semi-consonants are apparently pronounced in the same way as in Santālī. There appears, however, to be a tendency to exhale the current of air through the nose instead of through the mouth. In incorrectly written texts we therefore find words such as $m\bar{\imath}t'$, one; $\bar{\imath}p'$, hair, shown as midn or min, ubm, and so on. Soft consonants are very frequently substituted for the semi-consonants; compare Santālī. The semi-consonants are, on the whole, not so distinctly pronounced as in Santālī. In pronouncing the dental semi-consonant a greater part of the tongue strikes against the palate than is the case in Santālī. Hence the writing of d instead of t' in Hō.

I have marked the semi-consonants in the same way as in Santālī. Most old authorities confound them in the wildest manner possible or leave them unmarked throughout. Father Hoffmann uses the sign' to denote both k' and ch', and he writes d', b' instead of t', p', respectively. His reason for writing d' and b' is probably that those sounds are often changed to d and b, respectively. I have not, however, adopted Father Hoffmann's spelling because the semi-consonants are hard and not soft sounds.

It has not always been possible to distinguish between k' and ch' with absolute certainty. Forms such as ini', this, I have written inich', because the genitive of this word in Sonpur is inij-ak'. In other cases I have compared the corresponding Santālī form, and I hope that, in most cases, I have succeeded in distinguishing between the guttural and palatal semi-consonants. It should, however, be understood that the original specimens make no distinction between the two sounds.

The semi-consonants have the same tendency to develop into soft consonants as in Santālī; thus, $d\bar{a}l$ -ked-i- \bar{a} , struck him; but $d\bar{a}l$ -ket'- $ch\bar{i}$, having struck. In Mankipatti, however, the semi-consonants are usually retained before pronominal suffixes beginning with i. Thus the form om-ad- $i\bar{n}$ - \bar{a} -e, he gave to me, is given as om-a'- $i\bar{n}$ -a-e by Father Hoffmann. The full way of writing the form is $\bar{o}m$ - $\bar{a}t$ '- $i\bar{n}$ - \bar{a} -e. The final t' of verbal suffixes coalesces with the initial i of pronominal infixes into the semi-consonant ch'; thus, $d\bar{a}l$ - $k\bar{i}ch$ '- \bar{a} -e, he struck him. This ch' has only been fully written in Mr. Bodding's Kōdā specimen.\(^1\) In Palamau it is further softened to a j, so that we find forms such as $d\bar{a}l$ - $k\bar{i}j$ - $a\bar{e}$ instead of $d\bar{a}l$ - $k\bar{i}ch$ '-a-e, Santālī $d\bar{a}l$ -ked-e-a-e, he struck him. The form $d\bar{a}l$ - $k\bar{i}j$ -a-e already shows that we have to do with the palatal semi-consonant. I have therefore followed Mr. Bodding in introducing it in the specimens.

¹ Mr. Bodding explains the ch' as part of the pronominal infix.

Accent.—The accent is the same as in Santālī. It has been marked by putting the sign over the accented syllable in the first two specimens.

Nouns.—Genders and numbers are the same as in Santālī. The dual suffix $k\bar{\imath}ng$ $(k\bar{\imath}n)$, and the plural suffix $k\bar{o}$, are commonly dispensed with in the case of such nouns as denote inanimate objects. The dual and the plural are sometimes confounded in those districts in which the Aryan influence is strongest; e.g., in Sambalpur, Bamra, and Jashpur.

The case suffixes are mainly the same as in Santālī. The Aryan suffix $k\bar{e}$ begins to be used for the dative and accusative outside the Ranchi District.

The genitive suffix ak' is sometimes used instead of $r\bar{e}n$ when the governing noun denotes an animate being.

Some of the most common postpositions are $t\bar{e}$, in, into, by means of; tak, to, near; $r\bar{e}$, in; $at\bar{e}$, $et\bar{e}$, from; $l\bar{a}k$, with, together with; $th\bar{a}n$, with, near, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives very commonly end in n; thus, bugi-n, good; et'ka-n, bad. In a similar way the suffix of nouns of agency is $\bar{\imath}ch'$ or $n\bar{\imath}ch'$; thus, $h\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}n-n\bar{\imath}ch'$, the small one; $lek\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}ch'$ and $lek\bar{a}\bar{\imath}ch'$, one who is like.

Numerals.—The first numerals will be found in the list of words. Higher numbers are always counted in twenties. The old Mundari numerals are gradually being superseded by Aryan loan-words, and in Sambalpur they are, for example, now scarcely known beyond 'four.'

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns are the same as in Santālī. 'I' is $\bar{\imath}ng$ or $\bar{\imath}n$. An accented form $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}ng$, I, is, however, also used in many localities. 'I and he' is $\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}ng$, 'I and you' $\bar{a}b\bar{u}$.

The pronoun $\bar{a}ch'$, self, is often written $\bar{a}e$. The genitive is $\bar{a}jak'$ or $\bar{a}ch'-ak'$. The pronominal suffix of the third person is \bar{e} , $\bar{\imath}$, and, sometimes, $\bar{\imath}ch'$, thus, $Ur\bar{a}\tilde{o}-tan-\bar{\imath}ch'$, he who is an $Ur\bar{a}\tilde{o}$, or, he is an $Ur\bar{a}\tilde{o}$.

Note also forms such as $\bar{\imath}\bar{n}$ -ag-ak', mine; $\bar{a}m$ -ag-ak', thine; $S\bar{o}m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -

Mundārī does not appear to possess the rich variety of demonstrative pronouns which we have found in Santālī. The usual forms are $n\bar{e}$, $n\bar{i}k'\bar{i}$, this (animate); $ne\bar{a}$, $n\bar{a}k'\bar{a}$, this thing; $\bar{i}n\bar{i}$, this farther off (animate); $\bar{e}n\bar{a}$, this (inanimate); $\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, that, he (animate); $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, that thing; $h\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, that being far off; $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, that thing far off. By adding the pronominal suffixes ch' (animate) and ak' (inanimate) we arrive at the compound pronouns $n\bar{i}ch'$; $\bar{i}n\bar{i}ch'$, $h\bar{a}n\bar{i}ch'$; $n\bar{e}ak'$, $\bar{e}nak'$, $h\bar{a}nak'$, etc. The bases $n\bar{e}$, $\bar{e}n$, $h\bar{a}n$, etc., are commonly used as adjectives. Thus, $n\bar{e}$ $h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, this man; $h\bar{a}n$ $b\bar{u}r\bar{u}$, that mountain.

The interrogative pronouns are $\hat{a}k\hat{a}e$, who? chikanak', what? $\hat{A}k\hat{a}$ and chikan are adjectives. Compare $\hat{a}k\hat{a}-n-\hat{c}k$, which? chikan- $\hat{c}k$, what kind? and so forth.

Verbs.—The inflexion of verbs is mainly the same as in Santālī. The categorical a is dropped after the pronominal infix ak; thus, $n\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}k$ '- $l\bar{a}n$, we two shall set the door ajar; $l\bar{e}l$ - $l\bar{a}k$ '- $\bar{\imath}ng$, I saw it first, and so forth.

The pronominal infixes and suffixes play the same rôle as in Santālī. When the direct object is an inanimate object an e is inserted after the base in the future and the simple imperative. Thus, $l\bar{e}l$ -e- \bar{a} - $\bar{i}ng$, I shall see it; $j\bar{a}m$ -e-ak, that which is eaten; $l\bar{e}l$ -e- $m\bar{e}$, look at it.

The conjugational bases are formed as in Santālī. Compare dal, strike; intensive dadal; reciprocal dapal. The suffix of the reservative form is $t\bar{a}$, or, very seldom, $k\bar{a}$, passive kok. Thus, $n\bar{e}$ $s\bar{a}d\bar{a}m$ - $k\bar{o}$ - $\bar{i}ng$ \bar{a} - $k\bar{i}r\bar{i}n$ - $t\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{o}$ - \bar{a} , I will sell off these horses; $d\bar{u}b$ -kok- \bar{a} - $\bar{i}ng$, I shall sit down.

The suffix en is often used in the indefinite tense of the direct middle. Thus, $d\bar{a}l$ -en- \bar{a} - $\bar{i}ng$, I strike myself. This shows that the suffix en is not in reality a suffix of the past; compare p. 49, above.

The suffix of the causative is ichi or chi; thus, sēn-ichi-tan-ā-īng, I make him go.

The inflexional bases are, broadly speaking, formed as in Santālī. Compare ābūng-ī-ā-īng, I shall wash him; 'mēt-āi-ā-īng, I shall say to him; sēn-ok'-ā-īng, I shall go; nī-tāk'-īng, I shall set the door ajar; ābūng-ked-ā-īng, I washed; dāl-kīch'-ā-īng, I struck him; ōm-āch'-āe, he gave him; dāl-led-ā-īng, I had washed; lēl-līch'-ā-e, he had seen him; rāk'-lī-āe, he shall first call him; dāl-lāk'-e, he had struck it; dāl-akad-ā-e, he has struck.

In a few characteristics, however, Mundārī differs from Santālī.

The copula or verb substantive is tan, past $t\bar{a}e$ -ken- \bar{a} . Thus, $r\bar{a}k$ '- $\bar{i}ng$ -tan- $\bar{a}e$, he is calling me.

The suffixes et, en, become yat, yet and yan, respectively, and, in Mankipatti, further, jat, jan, respectively. After nasals we sometimes also find nat, nan, respectively. Thus, $l\bar{e}l$ -jad- \bar{e} -e, he sees him; $h\bar{o}b\bar{o}$ -yan- \bar{a} , it became (Palamau); $s\bar{e}nok$ -jan- \bar{a} -e, he went (Mankipatti); $or\bar{o}n$ -nad- \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, we come out, and so forth. The suffix et is probably not contained in forms such as $\bar{o}rak$ - $l\bar{c}ch$ - \bar{n} - \bar{a} , I am going home; $R\bar{a}nch\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{i}ch$ - \bar{n} - \bar{a} , I am staying at Ranchi. The suffixes $t\bar{c}ch$, $r\bar{c}ch$ are probably formed from the suffixes $t\bar{e}$, $r\bar{e}$, respectively, by adding the suffix $\bar{c}ch$. Compare $n\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{e}$ -m- \bar{a} , thou art here; $\bar{a}p\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{n}g$ -lak- $l\bar{n}$ -lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-lak-

The future, and usually also the past tense of the reservative form, begin with t where Santālī has k; thus, $d\bar{a}l$ - $t\bar{a}k$ '-e, he will strike it; $t\bar{a}l$ - $t\bar{a}ck$ '- \bar{a} -e, he bound him.

The perfect is formed as in Santālī. The infixes of the direct and indirect object are not, however, distinguished. Thus, $s\bar{e}n-\bar{a}kan-\bar{a}$, has walked; $\bar{o}m-\bar{a}kat'-i\tilde{n}-\bar{a}-e$, he has given to me.

The suffix of the subjunctive mood is ke; thus, $Asam-t\bar{e}\ idi-ke-m\bar{e}-\bar{a}-k\bar{o}$, they might possibly take you off to Assam. In Jashpur we find forms such as $j\bar{a}m-te-\bar{a}e$, he would have eaten. This suffix is probably different from the optative particle k; thus, $s\bar{e}n-k-\bar{a}e$, he may go; $l\bar{e}l-k\bar{o}-k-\bar{a}e$, let him see them.

Conjunctive participles are formed from the inflexional bases by adding postpositions. A very common postposition in such forms is $ch\bar{\imath}$; thus, $sambutau-ket'-ch\bar{\imath}$, having collected.

In Sambalpur and Bamra we find infinitives such as $g\bar{u}p\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{a}ng$, in order to tend. They apparently contain the Aryan suffix $n\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{\tilde{a}}$.

The negative particles are $k\bar{a}$ and $al\bar{o}$. $K\bar{a}$ is used as Santāli $b\bar{a}$. There is, however, also an impersonal base $k\bar{a}$ - $i\bar{n}$ -ak', $k\bar{a}$ -m-ak', etc., which usually has the meaning 'not to want,' 'to refuse.' Thus, $k\bar{a}$ -e-ak', he does not wish; $k\bar{a}$ - $i\bar{n}$ -ak'-jad-a, I do not agree to this. 'I do not exist,' 'I am not' is $b\bar{a}ng$ - $i\bar{n}$ -a, second person $b\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{e}$ -a, third person $b\bar{a}ngak$ '-i-a, neuter banok'-a or banoak'.

For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned under the head of authorities, and to the specimens which follow. The two first, a version of the Parable

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and a popular tale, have been prepared by the author of the newest and best Mundārī grammar, Father J. Hoffmann, S.J. They represent the Mundārī of Mankipatti, and are accented. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, for which I am likewise indebted to the kindness of Father J. Hoffmann, will be found below on pp. 240 and ff. It represents the same form of the dialect. I have, however, brought the orthography in closer agreement with that used in the Santālī portion, and I have, for that purpose, made use of a list of Standard Words and Phrases in the Kōdā of Birbhum prepared by the Rev. P. O. Bodding.

The third specimen is the beginning of a version of the Parable in the Mundari of Palamau. It represents a form of speech which is almost identical with that current in Mankipatti. Note only forms such as kaji-aj-a-i, he said to him; hobo-yan-a, it became; but senok'-jan-a, went.

The fourth specimen is the beginning of another version of the Parable from Jashpur. The dialect has come under the influence of Aryan forms of speech. It is, however, in most characteristics identical with that spoken in Mankipatti. Note forms such as senen-a-e, he went; nam-nan-a-e, he was found; baria kora hon-ko, instead of han-king, two sons.

The fifth specimen has come from Bamra. It represents the Mundari of Bamra and Sambalpur. The influence of Aryan forms of speech can be traced in the confusion between the dual and the plural, and in the general want of consistency in grammar. Note forms such as baria han tai-ken-a-ko, two sons were (plural); ayum-le, he heard; jājum-nang, to eat.

[No. 9.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

MUNDĀRĪ.

SPECIMEN I.

(Father J. Hoffmann, S.J., 1899.)

(DISTRICT RANCHI.)

Mit' hóro-ak' kora-hón-king bar hóro-ge-king tái-ken-a. En-te huring-nich'. One man-of male-child-two two men-they-two were. Thensmall-the, 'kúrji-ko-ak' áiñ-ag-ak' hatíng, aba, om-á-ing-me,' mén-te apú-te-e kaji-ách'-a. 'goods-of mineshare, father, give-to-me-thou,' saying father-his-he said-to-him. Orok' dán-kúrji-e hating-at'-king-a. Huring dín-re huring-nich' sobén-ak' And wealth-he divided-to-them-two. Fen days-in small-the all-things. sambutaú-ket'-chi sangín disúm-te-e senok'-jan-a orok' en-tak'-re jom-nú collected-having far country-to-he went-away there eating-drinking ať éťkan kuri-ko-te kúrji-tae dumbuí-chabá-tad-a. Sobén-ak' chabá-ket'-te en and bad women-with wealth-his to-drown-finished. All-things finished-having that disúm-re kentet' ringa-jan-a, orok' inich'-o-e renge-ok'-etech'-jan-a. Orok' country-in intense famine-arose, he-also-he hungry-to-become-began. Andsenok'jan-chi miat' en disúm-ren horo tak'-re dasí-n-jan-a. Ní-do gone-having one thatcountry-of man withservant-made-himself. Heach'-ak' óte-te súkuri-ko gupí-ko-e kul-tach'-a. Orok' súkuri-ko jóm-jať self-of land-to pigs to-keep-them-he sent-him. And swine eaten lupú-ko-te lach' $_{
m bi}$ ká-ko om-ách'-a. sanang-lich'-taí-ken-a, mēn-do jetaé-o husks-with belly to-fill wishing-was, butanyone-even not-they gave-to-him. En-te-do moné-rurá-jan-chi-e kaji-lak', 'apu-iñ-ak' orak'-re chimín Then thought-returned-having-he said, 'father-my-of house-in how-many day-labourers laich' biuk'-ge-ko jóm-tan-a, aing né-re-ge renge-goch'-tan-a-ing. orok' bellyfull-indeed-they eating-are, I here hungry-dying-am-I. and apu-ing-tak'-tīñ-a orok'-ing Birit'-ko-te meta-á-i-a, "ela aba, sírma-ak'-Arisen-having father-my-near-I-go and-I will-say-to-him, "O father, heaven-ofing pap-akad-a, orok' am-ag-ak'. Am-ak' hon kaji-ok' leka-nich' aing orok'-do I sinned-have, and thine. son to-call-myself worthy-man I ThyAm-ak' nála-nich'-leká-ing-me." Orok' birít'-jan-chi apu-te-tak'-Thee-of day-labourer-a-like-me-make-thou." And arisen-having father-histí-jan-a. Men-do sangín-re taí-ken-ímta apu-te-e lel-nám-kich'-a orok'-e nír-darómapproached. But far-off was-whilst father-his-he see-got-him and-he ran-met-

kich'a orok' hotok'-re hambut'-kich'-chi-e chók'-kich'-a. Hón-te-do-e met-ach'-a, 'ela him and neck-on embraced-him-having-he kissed-him. Son-his-he said-to-him, 'O aba, sirma-ak'-ing pap-akad-a, orok' amag-ak'. Amak' hon kaji-ok'-leka-nich' father, heaven-of-I sinned-have, and thine. Thy son to-call-myself-worthy-man aing orok'-do ka.' Apu-te-do dási-ko-e kaji-at'-ko-a, 'bugin uter I morenot.' Father-his servants-he said-to-them, goodclothurung-táb-ke-ate uiuk'-i-pe, orok' tik'-re mudám tusing-i-pe, orok' kúta-re brought-quickly-having put-on-him, and hand-on ring put-on-him-ye, and feet-on júta; orok' kiri-akan chúi mak'-i-pe, orok'-bu jom-nú-rasiká-e-a; calf kill-him-ye, and-we will-eat-drink-feast; this son-my shoes; and fattened dáng-e góch'-len-a, orok'-e jit'-rurá-jan-a; at'-len-a-e, orok'-e nám-rura-ákan-a.' forsooth-he dead-was, and-he alive-returned; lost-was-he, and-he found-again-has-been.' rasiká-ko etech'-jan-a. And to-feast-they began.

Maráng-nich'-do píri-re-e tai-ken-a. Orok' rurá-jan-chi orak' tebáge-lok' Great-one-as-to field-in-he And returned-having house reaching-on was. jhum-kaú-akán bája-ko at' susuntán-ko-ak' duráng-e aium-lak'. Orok' tuned-having-been instruments and dancers-of singing-he heard. And miat' dasi-e rak'-kich'-te, 'néa chí-kan-ak'?' mente-e kulí-kich'-a. one servant-he called-him-having, 'this what-being-thing?' saying-he asked-him. Nich'-do-e meta-ách'-a, 'bokó-m-e hijuk'-akan-a; orok' apú-m This-very-he said-to-him, 'younger-brother-thy-he come-has; and father-thy kiri-akan chui-e mak'-kich'-a, inich'-ge bugi-bugí-ge-e nam-rurá-kich'-a men-te.' fattened calf-he killed-him, that-one well-well-indeed-he got-back-him saying. En-te-do-e kís-jan-a orok' bolo ka-e-ák'-jan-a. Ena-men-te apu-te Then-he angry-became and to-enter not-he-wished. Therefore father-his urung-jan-chi-e kuli-etech'-kich'-a. Inich'-do apu-te-e kaji-rura-ach'-a, 'aminang come-out-having to-ask-began-him. Hefather-his-he said-back-to-him, 'so-many sírma-ing dasi-ám-tan-a. Orok' amak' húkum miat'-ó ká-ing atóm-lak' chiula-o. servant-thy-am. And thee-of order years-Ione-even not-I put-aside ever-even. Én-re-ó sángi-ko-lok' rasiká men-te miat'-ó meróm hón ka-m That-in-even friends-with to-feast saying one-even, goatyoung not-thou Apú-te-do, 'hon-ing,'-e men, 'ám-do janaú om-akat'-iñ-a.' aing-lok'-ge-m given-hast-to-me.' Father-his, 'son-my,'-he said, 'thou always me-with-indeed-thou Orok' aiñ-ak' soben-ak' am-ag-ak'-tan-ak'. taín-tan-a. Bokó-m kóra-do remainest. And me-of all-things thine-being-things. Younger-brother-thy boy goch'-len-áte-e jit'·rurá-jan-a; orok' sen-át'-len-áte-e nám-rura-ákan-a dead-having-been-he alive-again-became; and gone-lost-having-he found-again-has-been men-te ka-chí rasiká hobá-len-a? saying not-why to-feast became?'

[No. 10.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

MUNDĀRĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(Father J. Hoffmann, S. J., 1899.)

(DISTRICT RANCHI.)

Bár-ia harám-búria-king taí-ken-a. Én-te ráhari-king Two old-man-old-woman-they-two were. Then rāhar-dāl-they-two hér-la(k'), én-te jetaé taí-ken-a. mit' ká-ko hóro Én-te kulaí-ko sowed-had, then any servant man not-they were. Then hares Én-te musing-dín-do-, lang dási-ko silíb-ko jóm-jať-ko taí-ken-a rahari. deer eating-they that rāhar-dāl. some-day-, ve-two were Thennam-aú-ko-a-lang',-king mén-ked-a. Én-te sída keat'-king seek-bring-them-will-we-two',-they-two said. Then first parrot-they-two nám-kich'-a. 'Ko-te-bén-tan-a, hale ája-king?'-e 'Where-you-two-are-going, found. hey grandfather-and-grandmother?'-he meta-a-king-tan-a. 'Dási-kamirín-ko nam-aú-te-líng-tan-a.' says-to-them-two. 'Servants-maid-servants seeking-bringing-in-we-two-are.' 'Then suku-aíñ-a-chi?' En-te-do, 'chí-leka-m rak'-e-a?'-king me-you-two will-agree-to-me-what? Then, 'what-like-thou crying-out? '-they-two meta-ai-tan-a. En-te, 'keat'-keat'-keat' mente-ng rak'-e-a. 'Ká-ling-ak'; said-to-him. Then, 'keat'-keat'-keat' saying-Icry. ' Not-we-two-wish: keat'-chaba-taling-ge.' keat'-finish-our-indeed.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

An old couple had sown their rice. They had not any servants to look after it, and so the hares and the deer used to eat the rice. One day they went out in search of servants, and they met a parrot. Said he, 'where are you going, grandfather and grandmother?' 'We are looking out for servants.' 'Would you take me?' 'How do you cry?' 'I say keat'-keat'-keat'.' 'You would eat up all our rice in singing keat'. We don't want you.'

[No. II.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Mundārī.

SPECIMEN III.

(DISTRICT PALAMAU.)

Ja horo-ak' bar-hor hon-king tai-ken-a. En-kin-ate huring-nich' apu-Some man-of two-men son-they-two were. Those-two-among small-one fatherte-ke kaji-aj-a-i, 'he khurji-ete okoe aiñ-ak' hating-re hobao-a apu, his-to said-to-him-he, 'O father, property-in which me-of share-in will-come ena aiñ-ke em-aiñ-me.' En-te ini ach'-ak' khurji-ko hațing-at'-king-a. that me-to give-to-me.' And he self-of goods divided-to-them-two. Many ka hobo-yan-a chi ach'-ak' huring hon soben khurji hundi-ket'-te became that self-of small80n all property collected-having sanging disum-te senok'-jan-a, oro kami-re an-re etka din bitao-ket'-te far .country-to went, there deeds-in days spent-having andbad ach'-ak' khurji urao-ked-a-i. self-of property wasted-he.

[No. 12.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

MUNDĀRĪ.

SPECIMEN IV.

(STATE JASHPUR.)

Miat' herel-ke baria kora hon-ko tae-en-a. Huding hon-te apu-te-ke man-to twomale children were. Small son-the father-his-to kaji-la(k')-e, 'e aba, aingak' banta-khurji-ko em-a-ing-me.' Oro ini han-ku-ke O father, me-of said-he, share-goods give-to-me.' And he khurji hating-at'-ku-a-e. sagro Oro huding din tayom-te huding property divided-to-them-he. And few days aftersmallsoben-ko-ke au-la(k')-e oro sanging disum sen-en-a-e, en-ta(k')-re soben took all-things andfarcountry went, there allkhurji-ko-ke be-kar kami-ko-re dubuch'-chaba-tad-a-e. Soben-ak'-e chaba-ked-chi en evil deeds-in to-drown-finished-he. All-he finished-having that rengech'-nan-a, oro inich'-ke dukuk'-nan-a. En-te inich' sen-en-a-e isu kingdom-in heavy famine-became, and him-to misery-became. Then he went-he en raij-re-do miat' horo-lo(k') tae-en-a-e. Oro inich' inich'-ke ach'-ak' biri-re and that kingdom-in one man-with stayed-he. And hisfield-in sukri gupi-te kul-ki(ch')-a-e. Oro sukri-ko here-ko jom-tae-en-a here-ke swine tend-to sent-him-he. And swine husks eating-were thosehusksnam-te-a-e hole lach' biyok'-gi jom-te-a-e, oro jetae inich'-ke ka-ko got-if-had-he then belly to-fill eaten-would-have-he, and anyone him-to not-they em-la(k').

gave.

[No. 13.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

MUŅDĀRĪ.

SPECIMEN V.

(STATE BAMRA.)

Miat' hatu-re tai-ken-a-ko (sic.) haram burhi. Mu-sing old-man old-woman. One village-in were-they Some-day old-woman water sen-kan-a-e. Raja orak'-ren hârâ baid nam-tahin-a-ko. Burhia King's house-of men physician searching-were-they. to-fetch went-she. Old-woman oka-te sen-ok'-tan-a-pe?' Hiu-ko kaji-la(k')-e-ko, kuli-lit'-ku-a-i, 'ape raja asked-them, 'you where going-are-you?' Theytold-they, king'sdukhu-tan-a-e je baid nam-te sen-ok'-tan-a-ko. Burhia kaji-la(k')-e, 'ali-ak' that physician seeking going-are-they. Old-woman told, our . haram khob sari-a-e.' Hen hârâ-ko haram-ke sap'-idi-ked-i-a-ko. Burha-ke old-man much knows-he.' Those men old-man caught-took-away-him-they. Old-man idi-ke-te dukhali hârâ-lo(k') miat' kuthri-re ader-tad-i-a-ko. Chilka-ke-te illman-with taken-having one room-in shut-up-him-they. Somehow Raja burha-ke khob mal-jal hen hârâ bes-nan-a-e. im-ad-i-a-e. Burha that man well-became. King old-man-to much property gave-to-him-he. Old-man burhi khob sukh-re tahen-en-a-ko. old-woman great happiness-in lived-they.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In a village there lived an old man and an old woman. One day the old woman went to fetch water. Men from the king's house had just gone out to find a physician and she asked them where they were going. They told her that the king's son was ill, and that they had been sent for a physician. The old woman told them that her husband was very clever, and so the men took the old man away and shut him up in a room with the sick prince, who, somehow, became well again. The king then bestowed much wealth on the old man, and he and his old wife lived in great happiness.

BHUMIJ.

It has already been mentioned that a dialect which is almost identical with Muṇḍārī is also spoken by the Bhumij tribe of Singbhum and neighbourhood. According to Mr. Risley, the Bhumij are probably 'nothing more than a branch of the Muṇḍās who have spread to the eastward, mingled with the Hindūs, and thus for the most part severed their connection with the parent tribe.' According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey they speak a separate dialect in the west of Singbhum, in the Orissa Tributary States, and in the Chota Nagpur Tributary States. At the last Census of 1901, speakers have also been returned from Midnapore and Manbhum, and, in small numbers, also from some other districts of the Bengal Presidency.

No information is available regarding the dialect of the Bhumij of Midnapore. It is probably Santālī, and it is spoken in the west of the district. In Manbhum they are found in the west, and, according to Mr. Risley, speak Mundārī. The Bhumij on the eastern side of the Ajodhya range speak Bengali. The Tamariās are a sub-tribe of the Bhumij, who were originally settled in Pargana Tamar of Ranchi. Their dialect does not differ from that of the Bhumij proper. Other Tamariās speak a dialect of Magahī. See Vol. v, Part ii, pp. 166 and ff.

The number of speakers of Bhumij has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

Orissa Tributary	Stat	es-										
Morbhanj	٠.										39,693	
Nayagarh	•	•	•		•	•					1,681	
Nilgiri	•	•	•	•							321	
									(4			41,695
Singbhum .	•	•		•	•							30,000
Chota Nagpur T	ribut	ary St	ates-									
Sarai Kala	•	•									5,900	
Bonai .		•		•	•	•	•				75	
												5,975
											-	
								To	TAL	•		77,660

Forty-three out of the 75 speakers in the Bonai State have been reported to speak Kurmi Bhumij. No specimens have been forwarded from the State. It is, however, not probable that the different denomination connotes a difference of dialect. With regard to the Kurmi caste compare Dr. Grierson's paper On the Kurmīs of Bihār, Chutiā Nāgpur, and Orissa. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxvii, Part iii, 1893, pp. 110 and f.

The following are the revised figures for the so-called Tamaria Bhumij as estimated for this Survey:—

Jrissa Tributa	ary i	States—										
Morbhanj			•								,	832
Nilgiri	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			586
											~	
									To	FAL	•	1,418
											70	

В	y adding the	ese f	igur	es to	thos	e g	iven	above	e for	Bh	umij	pro	per v	ve arrive at the
followi	ing total as e	stima	ated	for the	his S	urv	еу:-	_						
	Bhumij proper			•			٠.							77,660
	Tamariā Bhun	iij	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,418
											To	TAL		79,078
m	a numban of	eno.	al-as			-4	41 4	n					,,	
TI	ie number of	spe	akei	s retu	rnea	. at	tne (Censu	s of .	Taot	was	as fo	Мощо	s :—
	Midnapore	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		23,272
	Hoogly .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•				7
	24-Parganas	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			. 963
	Jalpaiguri	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				•	7
	Pabna .	•	•	•	•						•			206
	Sonthal Pargar	nas	•	•	•	•								1
	Balasore .	•		•	•	•								356
	Manbhum		•											2,340
	Singbhum													25,624
	Orissa Tributar	y Sta	tes											53,120
	Chota Nagpur	Tribu	ıtary	States									ì	5,314
	Assam .												1	94
													· 1	
									10		Tor	AL		111,304
\mathbf{T}	nis total inclu	ides	the	figure	s ret	urn	ed u	nder t	he h	ead o	of Ta	mari	ā Bh	umij, viz.:—
	Singbhum													4,016
	Orissa Tributar	y Sta	tes											2,705
	Chota Nagpur	Tribu	tary	States										799
	Assam .							•				•	•	52
			2000	6938	2000		-	-	-		•	•	•	02
											To	TAL		7,572

It will be seen that Bhumij has been returned from several districts where the information collected for the purposes of the Linguistic Survey does not make any mention of such a dialect. The obvious reason is that Bhumij is not the name of a dialect but of a tribe, and it has not formerly been separately returned in districts where the Bhumij speak the same dialect as their neighbours. In the Orissa Tributary States, Singbhum, and the Chota Nagpur Tributary States, on the other hand, the principal Mundā languages are Santālī and Hō, while the members of the Bhumij tribe mostly speak a dialect which is almost identical with Mundārī. Some of them, however, apparently use the current Mundā language of their district. Thus the Bhumij vocabulary published by Hodgson in 1850 and prepared by Captain Haughton in Singbhum, is mainly Hō. The figures given above are therefore far from being certain, as in other similar cases when the name of a tribe has been used as the denomination of a dialect.

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Campbell, Sir George,—The Ethnology of India. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxv, Part ii, 1866. Supplementary Number. Contains in appendix F a Bhumij vocabulary by R. G. Latham.

Hunter, Sir W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

[Lyall, Sir A. J.],—Report of the Ethnological Committee on Papers laid before them, and upon examination of specimens of aboriginal tribes brought to the Jubbulpore Exhibition of 1866-67.

Nagpore, 1868. Part iii contains a Bhumij vocabulary.

CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE,—Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874. Contains Bhumij of Manbhum.

Specimens have been received from the Orissa Tributary States and from Singbhum, and two of them will be reproduced in what follows. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son taken down in the Nilgiri State and professing to be written in Tamariā Bhumij; the second is a short tale from Singbhum. Both represent the same form of speech, viz., Mundārī, with very few peculiarities. The Aryan postposition ke is commonly used in the dative and the accusative, and the genitive of pronouns is usually formed after the model am-ag-ak', thy. In the specimens received from the Orissa Tributary States we find kana, what? and a conjunctive participle ending in kiate; thus, haṭing-kiate, having divided; sen-kiate, having gone. Compare ananda-kia-natin, in order to make merry. In other respects the dialect is almost ordinary Mundārī, as will be seen from the specimens which follow.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

So-CALLED TAMARIA BHUMIJ.

SPECIMEN I.

(NILGIRI STATE.)

Moyat' horo-ak' bāriā korā-kin hon tāi-ken-ā. In-kin-ak' madh-re One man-of twochildboy-they-two were. These-two-of among apu-te-ke huring hon korā kaji-ād-i-ā-i, 'е ābā, amagak' daulat-re childboy father-his-to said-to-him-he, O father, thyproperty-in oka-w-ak' bhāg-ing nāme-y-ā-ing inich' $in\bar{a}$ om-aing-me. Inā-te ach'-agak' which share-Iget-shall-Ithat give-to-me-thou.' Then hehimself-of daulat hāting-kiāte in-kin-ke om-at'-kin-ā-i. Huring din tayom-te dividing them-two-to gave-to-them-two-he. property Fewdaysafterhani huring hon korā sobenak' hundi-kiāte sanging disum-te sensmallthatchildboy allcollected-having distant country-in gonekiāte khārāp ācharan-te soben. daulat atang-ked-a-y-e. Soben kharchbehaviour-in having evilallproperty squandered-he. Allspentket'-tayom-te inā disum-re isu ringā hobā-en-te ini-ak' duku-jan-ā-y-e. country-in arisen-having him-of having-after thatbigfamine misery-got-he. Inā-te ini disum-rak' sen-kiāte inā moyat' horo-ak' asra-hobā-jan-te thatThen gone-having country-of one man-of shelter-become-having he inich' ini-ke sukuri-goth gupi-te bati-te kul-kid-i-ā-y-e. horo Han-re him swine-flock field-in thatkeeping-in sent-him-he. There ini sukuri-ko-ak' ini-ke jitāe jitānak' jomeyak' kā-ko om-ād-i-āte anyone anything foodnot-they given-to-him-having heswine-of him-to lupuk'-te lach' biyuk'-na-tin sana-kid-i-a. Inā tayom-te ini jojomak' husks-with belly to-fill-his-for wish-seized-him. Thatafterfoodhethor-kiāte kaji-ked-ā-e, 'hāva, iñagak' àbā jāpak'-re mane-mane-te alas, mind-mind-in sense-having-got said-he, my fathernear muliä-chākar jomeyak' isu ado inā-āte jatkā nam-jad-ā-ko chiminang that-from enough labourers much andfoodget-they how-many birit'-kiāte jāpak'-re ing renga-te gojok'-tan-a-ing. Ing ābā-ak' ado father-of near Ihunger-in dying-am-I. I arisen-having and amagak' sen-kiāte kaji-a-ing, "e ābā. ing mahā-prabhu-ak' ado thee-of gone-having say-shall-I, " O father, I God-of moreover jayak'a upar-re-ing pap-ked-a-ing. Amagak' hon korā men-te bikhyāt worthy to-be-honored sinned-I. against-IThee-of child boy saying

niā-tayom-te kā-ing muliā-chākar lekā ing-ke hobā-ā. Amagak' moyat' this-after not-I shall-become. Thee-of one servant likeme doho-g-ing-me." Inā-tayom-te ini birit'-kiāte āpu-tet'-tak'-te senok'-jan-ā-e. keep-me-thou."; That-after hearisen-having father-his-near-to went-he. Ado ini-ak' āpu-tet' isu sānging-re ini-ke lel-ka-te dāyā-kid-i-ā-v-e. And his father-the muchfar him seen-having pitied-him-he. ado dhaur-sen-kiāte iniak' hotok'-re sap'kiāte ini-ke chok'andrun-gone-having him-of neck-on seized-having him kissedkid-i-ā-ye. Inā-te kāji-ād-i-ā-y-e, hon korâ ini-ke 'е him-he. Then child said-to-him-he, boy him-to 0 ' ābā, mahā-prabhu-ak' ado amagak' upar-re pāp-ked-ā-ing. Niā-te father, God-of andthee-of against sinned-I. Hence forthamagak' korā mente bikhyāta hobāyok' hon niā-tayom-te jayak'a kā-ing thee-of boy childsaying honoured to-become this-after worthy hobā-ā.' Ado iniak' āpu-te ach'agak' chākar-ko-i hukum-at'-ko-y-ā-e, shall-become.' And hisservants-he ordered-to-them-he, father-the self-of 'soben-ko-te bugiak' kichirich' agu-kiāte ini-ke pindhā-e-pe; 'all-from goodclothbrought-having put-on-him-you; him-of him dādo-re mudum em-āi-pe; ini-ak' kātā-re iuta em-āi-pe. Adoābo hand-on ring give-him-you; him-of foot-on shoegive-him-you. And jom-kiāte ānandan-ā-bo, iñagak' je-man-je $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{e}$ hon koŗā goch'-jan-te eaten-having feast-shall-we, because me-of thischildboy died-having ado-masā bañchāo-jan-ā-y-e; ini at'-len-ā-y-e nām-jan-ā-y-e.' Inā-te in-ko again saved-was-he; helost-had-been-he found-was-he.' Then they ānanda-ked-ā-ko. merry-made-they.

Im-tāng inigak' marang hon korā bādi-re tāi-ken-ā-e. Ado hijuk'-Then his bigchildboy field-in was-he. Andcominghijuk'-te orak' japak'-re hich'-jan-te susun oro bājānā-reyak' sāri coming house. near arrived-having-in dancing and music-of sound ayum-nam-ke-te chākar-ko-ak' moyat' horo-ke rak'-kiāte kuli-kid-i-ā-y-e, hear-got-having servants-of onecalled-having man asked-him-he, ' niā kāji chi-kanak'?' Ini kāji-ked-ā-y-e, 'amagak' hāgā hich'-len-ā-y-e, this. matter what? He said-he, 'thee-of brothercome-has-he. ado amagak' hāni-ke bugin hormo-re ābā nām-kid-i-kāran-te marang anuthee-of father himgood body-in got-having-him-reason-in bigbhoj em-ked-ā-v-e.' Inā-te kis-ke-te bitar-te senok' kā-е feast gave-he.' That-on angry-having-become inside-to to-go not-he mānā-ting-len-a. Inā-te inig-ak' ābā rāchā-te hich'-ke-te ini-ke isu Therefore him-of father outsidecome-having him much bujhāo-kid-i-ā-y-e. Ado ini apu-te-ke kāji-ruār-ād-i-ā-y-e, 'lel-me, amagak' entreated-him-he. he father-the-to said-back-to-him-he, And thee-of

jitāyak' hukum kā-ing amānāting-led-ā isu sirmā-te amagak' sewā ordernot-I disregardedany. many years-from thee-of service agu-tad-ā-ing. En-re-y-o kuṭum-ko-lok' ānanda-kiā-natin chim-tang-ho moyat' Stillfriends-with carried-out-I. feasting-for ever-even onemerom ing-ke $k\bar{a}$ -mom-ad-ing-ā. Ado amagak' oko hon-korā kasbinot-thou me-to gavest-to-me. goatAndthee-of which child-boy harlotssenok'-eman-āte tak'-te amagak' daulat kharch-ked-ā-y-e, ipāyāte going-etcetera-in thee-of near property uselesssquandered-he, hich'-torā ini inigak'-natin isu bhoj em-ked-ā-m.' Inigak' coming-as-soon-as him-of-sake-for he bigfeast gavest-thou.' Hiskāji-ked-ā-e, °е āpu-tet' hon korā, amjāoge ing-lok' men-ā(k')-m-ā. father-the said-he, O child boy, thoualways me-with art.Ado iñagak' oka-joto menak'-ā inā soben amagak'. Ado inā-te amagak' Andmine whatever isthatallthine. Butthat-for thyhāgā goch'-hobā-ke-te, ado-masā bañchão-jan-ā-e; īni at'-len-ā-e, brotherdead-been-having, againsaved-was-he; helost-had-been-he, nām-jan-ā-e; niā-te mauchhab ado ānanda-kiā-te ale-ak' uchit.' found-was-he; this-for festivity merriment-to-make us-of proper.' and

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Внимил.

(DISTRICT SINGBHUM.)

SPECIMEN II.

Moyat' hātu-re moyat' horo tāi-ken-ā. Ach'agak' bāriyā korā hon-One Hisvillage-in one man was. tvooboy childrenkin tāi-ken-ā. Inā bhitar-re maran korā hon-te orak'-re sari child-the Thosebigboy they-two were. among house-in wellkami-tan-e tāi-ken-ā. Huring hon-tak' jetā-o kā-e kami-tan-ā. Inā Small child-the anything working-he was. not-he did. This āpu-tet' ietā-o gunā-te $k\bar{a}$ suku-tan-ā. Moyat' hulang āpu-tet' huring father-the anything not pleased-was. reason-in Somedayfather-the smallhon-tak' kāji-ad-i-y-ā, 'orak'-re jodi kā kami-re-do, har-mi-y-ā.' Enā said-to-him. son 'house-in not working-in, ifdrive-off-thee-shall.' That kāji-natin-te . hon-tak' nir-jan-ā. enorak'-ete Bāriā āpe kos-re word-on-account-of thatson house-from went. Twothree kos-in hātu-re hich'-ke-te moyat' perā-ko orak'-re tāin-jan-ā-e. Perā-ko village-in onecome-having relativeshouse-in stayed. Relativeskuli-kid-i-y-ā, 'chikā-kānā-m hich'-ākan-ā?' $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{n}$ korā hon-tak' kāji-ad-i-y-ā, asked-him, 'why-thou come-hast?' Thatboy child told-him, 'iñak' orak-te āpā har-oron-tad-ing-ā.' Tār-gāpā-tā-re perā-ko 'my father house-from drove-out-me.' Thereupon-next-day-in relatives en hon-tak-ko āpu-te-ta-ko-tak'-re ao-sețe[r]-ad-i-ā. Hon-tak'-ke apu-tet' thatchild-they father-their-near brought-near-him. Son-tofather-the bes-lekā bujāting-kid-i-y-ā-e, ondo engā-tet'-o bes-lekā bujāting-kid-i-y-ā-e. wellremonstrated-he, mother-the-alsoandwell remonstrated-she. Tayum-te hon-tak' bujāting-jan-ā-e ondo orak'-re kami-jan-ā-e. Marang-ete-o came-to-senses-he Then son-the andhouse-in worked-he. Big-from-even huringich' khub kami-jan-ā-e, je tayum-te engā-tet' āpā-tet' khub muchsmall-theworked-he, so-that thenmother-his father-his much suku-ad-i-y-ā-kin. loved-him-they-two.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In a village there lived a man who had two sons. The elder son used to busy himself in the house, but the younger did not do anything. The father was much displeased,

BHUMIJ.

and one day he said to the latter, 'if you will not work in the house, I shall turn you out.' The son thereupon left the house, and after having gone some miles came to a village where certain relatives lived, and stayed with them. They asked him why he had come, and he told how his father had turned him out. The following day the relatives took him back to his father, and his mother and father admonished him. He then came to his senses, and did his work in the house even better than his elder brother. His mother and father were then very well pleased with him.

BĨRHÂŖ.

Birhâr literally means 'Forest-man.' According to Mr. Risley, they are 'a small Dravidian tribe of Chota Nagpur who live in the jungle in tiny huts made of branches of trees and leaves, and eke out a miserable living by snaring hares and monkeys, and collecting jungle products, especially the bark of the *chob* creeper (*Bauhinia scandens*), from which a coarse kind of rope is made. They claim to be of the same race as the Kharwars.'

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey, a dialect called Bīrhār was spoken in Hazaribagh, Ranchi, and Singbhum. Two hundred speakers were also returned from Palamau, but they have since left the district. No estimates of the number of speakers were forwarded from Hazaribagh and Singbhum, and the Census figures for the tribe have, therefore, been taken instead. It was also stated that the dialect was spoken by 500 individuals in the Jashpur State. The specimen forwarded from that State has, however, turned out to be written in Khariā, and the Bīrhār dialect of Jashpur will therefore be dealt with in connexion with that form of speech. At the last Census of 1901, some speakers of Bīrhār were also returned from Manbhum. The numbers are everywhere small. The revised figures are as follows:—

Hazaribagh	•	•	•	•								-		717
Ranchi												•	•	504
Singbhum								•	•	•	•	•	•	904
Dingonum	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	13
											тот	AL		1,234
mı		•			~									
The correspon	ndir	ıg fig	ures	at th	ie Ce	nsus	of 19	901 v	vere	as fol	llows	:		
Hazaribagh	ndir •	ıg fig •	ures •	at th	ie Ce	nsus •	of 19	901 v	vere :	as fo	llows ·	:		180
Hazaribagh Ranchi	ndin	ıg fig •	ures :	at th		ensus :		901 v	vere	as fol	llows	:- :	:	180 129
Hazaribagh Ranchi Manbhum	ndin :	ıg fig • •	•	٠	•	ensus :		٠.	•	as fol	llows	: : :		
Hazaribagh Ranchi	:	ig fig	:	:	:	ensus	:	:	:	as fol	llows	:	•	

Some few Birhars are also found in other districts, such as the Sonthal Parganas, but no estimates are available, and their number is unimportant.

AUTHORITY-

Driver, W. H. P.,—Notes on some Kolarian Tribes. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lvii, Part i, 1889, pp. 12 and ff.

I am indebted to the Rev. W. Kiefel, German Evangelical Lutheran Missionary in Ranchi, for a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the Rev. P. O. Bodding of Mohulpahari has been good enough to send me a list of Standard Words and Phrases taken down in the Sonthal Parganas.

The dialect of the Bīrhāṛs is not the same in all places. In Ranchi it does not differ much from Muṇḍārī; in the Sonthal Parganas it has come under the influence of Santālī and its sub-dialects. On the whole, however, Bīrhāṛ is more closely connected with Muṇḍārī than with Santālī. The tribe has probably been more numerous in former days than it is now, and it is probably only a question of time when the Bīrhāṛ dialect will cease to exist.

Pronunciation.—Mr. Kiefel does not distinguish between \vec{a} and o, or \vec{a} and e, respectively. Mr. Bodding's list, however, shows that at least the Birhâr of the Sonthal Parganas in this respect agrees with other neighbouring forms of speech.

ВІ́ВНẤР. 103

The cerebral r is commonly changed to r in the Sonthal Parganas; thus, $\hbar \hat{a}r$, man; δrak , house; $d\tilde{u}r\tilde{u}p$, sit. Compare Kārmālī and Māhlē. The form $\hbar \hat{a}r$ is probably due to the influence of those latter dialects. The corresponding word in Ranchi is horo, i.e. $\hbar \hat{a}r\hat{a}$.

On the other hand, the Ranchi specimen contains forms such as $hur\bar{i}n\bar{i}ch$, Santālī $h\bar{u}d\bar{i}n\bar{i}ch$, the small one. In the list 'how many?' is $t\bar{i}m\bar{i}n$ as in Santālī. The word does not occur in the specimen.

Inflexional system.—The declension of nouns and pronouns is the same as in Muṇ-dārī. The suffix of the dual is $k\bar{\imath}n$; thus, $\bar{a}p\bar{o}t$ - $k\bar{\imath}n$, two fathers. The inanimate form of the genitive suffix is sometimes used when the governing noun denotes an animate being, and vice versā. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}at$ ' $h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ -ak' $b\bar{a}re\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}p\bar{a}n$ - $k\bar{\imath}n$ $t\bar{a}hi$ -ken- \bar{a} - $k\bar{\imath}n$, one man of two male children were. Note also the suffix $rin\bar{\imath}ch$ ' in the list; thus, $t\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}n$ $d\bar{\imath}n$ - $rin\bar{\imath}ch$ ', of how many days? how old? $\bar{\imath}n$ - $rin\bar{\imath}ch$ ' (and $\bar{\imath}n$ - $in\bar{\imath}ch$ '), my. It is formed from the locative suffix $r\bar{e}$ by adding n and $\bar{\imath}ch$ '. In Santālī the suffix rinich' has got the special meaning of 'wife'; thus, Pandu-rinich', Pandu's wife.

The conjugation of verbs is mainly the same as in Mundari.

The copula or verb substantive is tan and kan in Ranchi, and kan in the Sonthal Parganas.

The present tense of finite verbs is given in the list only; thus, $r\bar{u}$ -y- $at\bar{a}$ -e, he strikes. In the specimen we find forms such as $dub\bar{a}o$ - $at\bar{a}$ -e, he wasted; $mo!r\bar{a}$ - $at\bar{a}$ -e, he gathered. The suffix is $at\bar{a}$, corresponding to Santālī aka.

According to the list of words the suffix of the past tense is et, passive en and len. Thus, $r\bar{u}$ -y-et'- \bar{a} - \tilde{n} , I struck; $s\bar{e}n$ -en- \bar{a} - \tilde{n} , I went; $s\bar{e}n$ -len- \bar{a} - \tilde{n} , I had gone.

The corresponding suffixes in the specimen are ed, ad, passive en, $\bar{a}n$, and yan. Thus, $nam-ed-e-\bar{a}-e$, he found him; $his-\bar{a}\bar{d}-kin-\bar{a}-e$, he divided to them; $\bar{a}d-en$, lost; $re\dot{n}ge-\bar{a}n-\bar{a}$, a famine arose; $khis\bar{a}o-yan-\bar{a}-e$, he got angry.

The suffixes ed and ad correspond to Santālī et' and at'. Ad is, however, occasionally also used before what we would call a direct object. Thus, $nam-ru\bar{a}\underline{r}-ad-e-\bar{a}-bu$, we found him again. In a similar way the suffix ked is sometimes used in cases where we would say that there is an indirect and not a direct object. Thus, $kah\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}ch$ '- \bar{a} -e, he said to him.

Other forms of the past tense are kul-tach'- \bar{a} -e, he sent him; $\bar{a}yum$ -la(k)'- \bar{e} , he heard; $tor\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, he went; chaba- $\bar{a}kad$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, having finished; $moth\bar{a}o$ - $\bar{a}kan$, fatted, and so forth.

The negative particle is $k\bar{a}$ as in Mundari.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows.

MUNDĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Bīrhār.

(DISTRICT RANCHI.)

(Rev. W. Kiefel, 1898.)

Mia(t') horo-ak' bāreā korā hopon-kin tāhi-ken-ā-kin. En-kin-ā-te male children-they-two were-they-two. Them-two-from One man-of two°е kahī-kī(ch')-ā-e, abā, ingak' hisā hudu om-āhurinich' āpu-ke said-him-he, · 0 father-to father, my sharegoods givesmall-the ing-me. Ente hini en-kin-ke ach'-ak' hudu his-ād-kin-ā-e. Huring goods divided-to-them-two-he. Then he them-two-to hisFewto-me-thou.' din tavom-te huring hopon sobenak' motrā-atā-e sanging disum-te all-thing together-made-he fardaysaftersmallsoncountry-to ach'-ak' et'kan paițī-re din harão-lo(k') hudu torāy-ā, odo en-tāi-re spending-with his evillife-in dayswent. and theregoodschaba-ākad-chī dubāo-atā-e. Soben-ak'-i endisum-re bechot wasted-he. All-he finished-had-after thatcountry-in heavy odo hini-e renge-an-a. hinī renge-an-a, En-te sed nam-te en Then destitute-became. he starvation-came, and he-he getting that sense hinī ach'-ak' mia(t') hor-tā-re tāhī-ken-ā-e, odo ote-re sukrī disum-re hiscountry-in one man-near stayed-he, and hefield-in swine hinī-ke kul-ta(ch')-ā-e. Odo hinī sukri jomad lupu-ko-āte ach'-ak' gorkhi-te sent-him-he. And heswineeaten husks-from feeding-for himbī-sanang-tāhi-ken-ā-e, hinī-ke om-ā(ch')-tāhi-ken-ā. laich' odo jāe kā-e to-fill-wishing-was-he, andanyone him-to not-hegave-to-him. belly'āpu-ing-ak' En-te birid-an-te kahī-ked-ā, dher nalhā-ko-tā purā Then arisen-having said, father-my-of many servants-to odo ing rengech'-gojuk'-tan-ā-ing. Ing birid-ko-te āpu-tā(k')jojomak' men-ā, hunger-dying-am-I. Ι food andΙ arisen-having father-tohinī-ke-ng gām-ā-i-ā, "e abā, ing drom odo amak' ing sinuk'-a odo shall-tell, "O father, shall-go andhim-to-I rightandthee-of ayar-re-ng gunhā-ked-ā. Odo ayar-te amak' hopon kahīok'-lekā before-I sinned. And thee-of to-be-called-worthy henceforth sonbang-ain-a. Amak' nalhā-ko-te miānī (mianīch'?) doho-ing-me." leka not-am-I. Thee-of servants-among likekeep-me-thou." one birid-ko(k')-te āpu-tā(k')-te torāy-ā-e. Odo Odo hinī sanging-re tāhi-ken, Andarisen-having father-near he distance-at went-he. And was. āpu hinī-ke nel-kī(ch')-āte im-tā moh-ad-i-a-e, odo nīr-daram-hambut'thenfather himseen-him-having pitied-him-he, run-met-embracedand

chok'-kī(ch')-ā-e. En-te hopon kahī-kī(ch')-ā-e, 'e abā. drom odo ke-te father, said-him-he, son rightThen andkissed-him-he. having amak' hopon gunhā-ked-ā-ing, ayar-te kahī-ok' odo avar-re amak' henceforth thyson to-be-called and sinned-I, thee-of before dhangor-ko-ke gām-ad-ko-ā-e, ach'-ak' bang-ain-ā.' Batkam āpu lekā-nich' father servants-to said-to-them-he. not-am-I. hisButworthy-man odo hinī-ak' horok'-o-pe, odo hinī bugin kichrich' odong-e-pe 'soben-āte him-of bring-out-you andhimput-on-you, andclothgood'all-from mothāo-ākan urich' horok'-o-pe, odo jutā anthī odo katā-re ti-re cow andfattened foot-on shoe put-on-you, andring hand-on Chikan rījāo-ā-bu. abu jom-ke-te au-ki(ch')-te odo goj-i-pe, hopon feast-shall-we. Whateating andyoung brought-it-having kill-it, jīved-ruār-ākan-ā-e; odo tāhi-ken-ā, odo goj-ākan-e men-te, ne hopon alive-returned-has-he; and anddied-having-he was, thisson saying, en-ko rījhāo nam-ruār-ad-e-ā-bu.' Odo tāhi-ken-ā-e, odo hinī ād-en they to-feast found-again-him-we.' Andandwas-he. lost he etech'-ked-ā-ko.

began-they.

Odo hijuk'-tan-lo(k') pahil hopon khet-re tāhi-ken-ā-e. hinī-ak' Batkam coming-on And first sonfield-in was-he. his Butenech'-ko-ak' sādī āyum-la(k')-e. pithāo-te seter-ān-te orak'-te heard-he. sound dancing-people-of drumming approaching house-to ach'-tā hohoi-od-i-yā-e, 'neā chinā-tan-ā? dhangor-ko-ete mia(t')-ge Odo what-is?' him-near called-to-him-he. 'this servants-from one And 'boko-m hinī-e kahī-ked-ā, korā Odo gām-ad-i-ā-e. men-te 'younger-brother-thy boy said-to-him-he. Andhe-he said. saying goj-āka(ch')-ā-e urich' neā mothāo-ākan āpu-m odo hich'-ākan-ā-e, this calfkilled-has-it-he fatted come-has-he, father-thy khisão-Odo hinī-e bugī-ge nam-ed-e-ā-e.' hini-ke lagit'-te chi And he-he got-him-he. angrywellhim that for sanang-ken-ā. Āpu-do odung-yan-te hinī-ke bolok' kā-e odo yan-ā-e, Father out-come-having him-to wished. became-he, and to-enter not-he āpu-ke kahī-ruār-ad-e-ā-e, hinī samjhāo-ad-e-ā-e. Batkam said-back-to-him-he, father-to But heremonstrated-to-him-he. chila-o amak' anchu amak'-ing paitī-tan-ā, odo sirmā-te nimin 'nele-me, order serving-am, and ever thy thy-I years-in ' see. so-many ingak' sangī-ko-lo(k') rijhāo-nagen-te chilā-o ing-ke sid-ked-ā. Odo kā-ing feasting-for me-to ever friends-with And transgressed. not-I amak' Batkam bisrendā paițī-re om-ad-ing-a. mia(t') bhedī hopon kā-m thyliving-in evilgavest-to-me. Butnot-thou young one hinī-ak" am im-tā-ge hopon-tam hech'-len chabā-atā-e, ne hudu histhen-indeed thoufinished-he, son-of-the€ came this property P

lāī mothāo-ākan enurich' hopon goj-ad-e-am.' Batkam sake-for thatfattedcowyoung killedst-for-him-thou.' Buthini-e gam-ad-e-ā, 'e hopon, am sob \dim ing-lok' menām-ā, odo ingak' he-he said-to-him, son, ' 0 thou all day me-with art,andminesobenak' amak'-gi-kan-ā. Batkam rijhāo amak' tāhi-ken-ā mar ne all-thing thine-indeed-is. Butto-feast thine was for thisgoch'-ākan tāhi-ken-ā-e, odo-e jīved-ruār-ākan-ā; hinī younger-brother-thy died-having was-he, and-he living-returned-has: he ād-en tāhi-ken-ā-e, odo nam-ruāṛ-yān-ā-e.' lostwas-he, and found-again-was-he.'

KŌDĀ OR KŌŖĀ.

The various Census reports mention a dialect called Kōdā or Kōrā. According to local estimates it is spoken by about 9,000 individuals

The Kodas are constantly confounded with other tribes, and it is often impossible to distinguish them. Their name is given in many various forms Name of the dialect. such as Kōdā, Kōrā, Kāorā, Khairā, Khayrā, and so forth. It cannot have anything to do with the Munda word for 'man,' which is $h\hat{a}r$ in those districts where most members of the tribe are found. The form Ködā seems to be the original one. It is probably an Aryan word and means simply 'digger.' This supposition well agrees with the actual facts. The principal occupations of the Kodas are tank-digging, roadmaking, and earthwork generally. The Kodas of Sambalpur and the neighbouring tributary States, Sarangarh, Bamra, and Rairakhol, are mostly cultivators, and they are commonly known as Kisāns, i. e. cultivators. Moreover, the Kōdās do not speak the same language everywhere. In the Central Provinces they mostly speak the Dravidian Kurukh, in the Bengal Presidency some of them speak Mundari, others Kurukh, and others perhaps Santālī, and so forth. Kōḍā is not, therefore, the name of a language, but of a profession. In Sarguja 569 speakers have been returned under the head of Kodári. Ködārī simply means the language of the Ködās, i.e. diggers.

The form Kōrā is only the Bengali way of pronouncing the common Kōdā. It has, however, often been confounded with the Muṇḍā word kōrā, a boy, and the Kōdās are therefore often confounded with the Kūrkūs, the Korwās, and other connected tribes. Thus the Kōdās, like the Korwās, are not always distinguished from the Khariās, and the names Khairā or Khayrā mentioned above are probably due to this fact.

It has already been remarked that the Kōdās of the Central Provinces speak Kurukh, and the figures referring to these will therefore be shown under the head of that language. It is of course possible that some of the Kōdās of the Central Provinces use a Muṇḍā form of speech. We have not, however, any facts to corroborate such a supposition. In this place I shall therefore only deal with the Muṇḍā Kōdās.

The honorific title which the Muṇḍā Kōḍās use to denote themselves is Mudi, and their language is, hence, sometimes called Kōrā-mudi ṭhār. They are divided into four sub-castes, bearing the names Dhalo, Molo, Sikhariā, and Bādāmiā. According to Mr. Risley, 'the Dhalo sub-caste say that they came from Dhalbhum, the eastern pargana of Singbhum; the Molo from Manbhum; and the Sikhariā from the tract of country between the Damodar and Barakar rivers bounded on the east by Samet Sikhar or Parasnath Hill. In Bankura, again, besides the Sikhariā we find three other groups—Sonārekhā, Jhetiā, and Guri-Bāwā, of which the first is associated with the Sonarekha or Subarnarekha river, which rises in the Muṇḍārī country, while the second bears the same name as one of the sub-castes of the Bāgdis.'

'The caste believe tank-digging, road-making and earthwork generally to be their characteristic profession, and it may be surmised that their adoption of a comparatively degraded occupation, necessarily involving a more or less wandering manner of life, may have been the cause which led to their separation from the Mundas who are above all things settled agriculturists, conspicuous for their attachment to their original villages.'

The Kōdās are spread over a rather large area in the central portion of the Bengal

Area within which spoken.

Presidency. Their old home is, according to their own traditions, Dhalbhum, Manbhum, and the neighbouring localities, i.e. the tracts of country now inhabited by the Bhumij and Mundārī tribes.

To a great extent, the Kōdās lead a wandering life, and it is not, therefore, possible to draw up exact boundaries of the area within which they are found.

The language of the Kōdās is not a uniform dialect, and the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey are not sufficient for judging its nature in all the various localities.

One excellent specimen of Kōḍā has been prepared by the Rev. P. O. Bodding. It represents the dialect as spoken in Birbhum. The Kōḍās of that district aver that they have come from Singbhum. They are now found on the frontier of the Sonthal Parganas. Their language is almost pure Muṇḍārī. The same is also, according to the Rev. A. Campbell, the case in Manbhum. The Kōḍās returned at the last Census from the Sonthal Parganas are not settled inhabitants. They have probably come from Birbhum or Manbhum. One section of them call themselves Phaṇgâṛ.

The Kōdās of Bankura state that they have come from Nagpur, and that they speak a dialect of Santālī. One specimen has been forwarded from the district. It is written in a very corrupt form of speech, but seems originally to have been a dialect of the same kind as that spoken in Birbhum, with a tinge of Santālī.

We have no information about the dialect of the Kōdās of other districts. In Athmallik they are said to speak Kurukh, and the same is perhaps the case everywhere in the Orissa Tributary States. It seems as if the Muṇḍā Kōdās originally spoke a dialect of Muṇḍārī, but are gradually abandoning their old language for that of their neighbours in districts in which they are only found in small numbers. On the other hand, they have entered their dialect as Kōdā, i.e. under the head of their caste. The language returns for Kōdā therefore probably comprise more than one dialect, and it is safer to give them separately, than to add them to the Muṇḍārī figures. If we only had to consider the specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, I should certainly have considered Kōdā as simply a sub-dialect of Muṇḍārī.

According to information forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, the Munda Number of Speakers. dialect Kōdā was spoken in the following districts:-

						Lancon	-		~~		•
Spoken at home-				9.79		_					
Burdwan .	•									2,309	
Bankura .										830	
Manbhum.										4,043	
Sarguja .										569	
Morbhanj.								62		276	
Pal Lahera										215	
Talcher :										103	
								Total			8,345
Spoken abroad-											•
Angul and Kh	ond	mals	•		•		•	•			604
4 2 5								Grand T	OTAL		8,949

The speakers in Sarguja were returned under the head of Kodārī, and it is not certain that they are really Kōdās. They are said to speak a Kōl dialect.

The corresponding	figure	s at	the la	st C	ensus	of 1	L90 1	were	as	follows	:	
Bengal Presidency-	_											
Burdwan										5,1	15	
Birbhum				4	•		•			5,7	56	
Bankura					•	•	•	•			67	
Midnapore					•	•	•	•	,	. 3,8	53	
Hoogly					•		•	•			60	
Murshidabad				•			•	•	•		05	
Rajshahi				•	•		•	•	•		5	
Dinajpur			•	•	•	•		•	•	. :	202	
Jalpaiguri				•	•	•	•	•	•		6	
Bogra				•		•	•	•			5	
Dacca			•	•	•	•	•	•	•		22	
Sonthal Parge	nas .			•	•						559	
Balasore .				•	•	•	•	•	•		707	
Manbhum		•	•	•	•.	•	•	•	•	2,	229	
Singbhum		•	•	•		•	•	•	•		32	
Orissa Tribut				•	•		•	•	٠.	1,	848	
Chota Nagpur	Tribute	ry S	tates	•	•	•	٠	•	•		56	
						T	otal B	engal]	Pres	idency		23,827
Assam .				•	•	•	•		•	•	•	46
								GR	ND	TOTAL	•	23,873

It will be seen that the dialect has now been returned from several districts where no mention had been made of it in the information collected for the purposes of this Survey. This fact can be accounted for in more than one way. The Kōḍās are constantly confounded with other tribes. Thus the speakers in Burdwan and Manbhum were reported in the preliminary operations of this Survey to speak Korwā, but they have turned out to be Kōḍās. On the other hand, it is probable that some of the returns under the head of Kōḍā in reality belong to some other dialect. Moreover, the Kōḍās lead a wandering life, and it is only what we should expect when we find them now in one district, and now in another.

The Kōḍā dialect of Birbhum is well illustrated by the specimen printed below. It has been prepared by the Rev. P. O. Bodding of Mohulpahari. It will be seen that the dialect is almost pure Muṇḍārī.

The various sounds of the dialect have been very carefully distinguished in the specimen. It will be seen that the phonetical system is the same as in Muṇḍārī. Compare $h\hat{a}r\hat{a}$, man; $n\bar{a}n$, get; $ch\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}n$, how many; $upun-\bar{\imath}a$, four; $b\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}t$, arise; $\bar{a}-b\bar{u}$, we; $l\bar{e}l$, see; $d\bar{u}p$, sit; $d\bar{u}l-k\bar{\imath}ch$ - $a-\tilde{n}$, I struck him, etc. Final \tilde{n} and n are usually retained unchanged; thus $\bar{\imath}n$, I; $\bar{\imath}n-k\bar{\imath}n$, they two. Note also forms such as $h\bar{u}d\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}ch$, the young one.

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is the same as in Muṇdārī. The suffixes of the genitive $r\bar{e}n$ and ak' are used promiscuously; thus, $\bar{a}m$ -ak' $\hbar\bar{a}n$, thy son; $i\bar{n}$ -ak' $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}n$ $ch\bar{i}mtit'$ $m\bar{u}n\bar{i}s$ - $k\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{e}n$ $m\bar{a}nd\bar{i}$ $b\bar{i}s\bar{i}k'$ -tan-ak' $t\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ -ak', my father-of how-many servants-of bread to-save-is-their. The form $t\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ -ak' in the last example shows that the pronominal genitive infixes are used as independent words. Compare $\bar{a}m$ - $\bar{a}\bar{n}$ - $m\bar{e}$ $t\bar{i}\bar{n}$ -ak', give me mine, give me my share; $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$ $d\hat{a}h\bar{a}n$ -ken-ak' $t\bar{a}e$ -ak' $tah\bar{a}s$ - $nah\bar{a}s$ -ket'-a-e $t\bar{a}e$ -ak',

there being his wasted-he his, he then wasted all his substance. On the other hand we also find the usual suffixed forms; thus, $tus\bar{\imath}n\cdot t\bar{a}e\cdot p\bar{e}$, put-on-his-ye, etc.

Note pronouns such as anī, he; ana, that; nīk'ī, this, and so forth.

The numerals are the same as in Muṇḍārī. Aryan loan-words are used for the numerals six and following; thus, $chh\bar{a}$, six; $s\bar{a}t$, seven; $\tilde{a}t$, eight; $l\bar{a}$, nine; $d\bar{a}s$, ten. $M\bar{\imath}-\bar{n}-at$ means one only. One is $m\bar{\imath}at$, $m\bar{\imath}t$, as in Muṇḍārī.

The conjugation of verbs is mainly the same as in Mundari. The pronominal infix and suffix of the third person singular is often $\bar{\imath}ch'$ instead of e; thus, $d\bar{\imath}d-e\bar{\imath}-ch'-tan-\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}$, I strike him.

The copula or verb substantive is tan-ā-ñ, am; tāhān-ken-ā-ñ, I was.

The suffix et (passive en) is used to denote past time; thus, $d\bar{a}l$ -et'- \bar{a} - \tilde{n} , I struck.

Note also forms such as $b\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}t'$ - $ket\acute{a}ch'$, having arisen; $k\bar{a}$ -e-ak'-ken- \bar{a} , would not.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows. It will be seen that the Kōdā of Birbhum in all essential points agrees with Muṇdārī.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Kōpā.

(BIRBHUM.)

(Rev. P. O. Bodding, 1903.)

häräl hận hấrấ-rẽn bār-iā tāhān-ken-ā-kīn. Ār Miat' īn-kīn twomale children were-they-two. And One man-of these-two hūdīn-īch'-tāk' āpū-tēt'-ke gām-āch'-ē, 'hä baba, iñ-ak' ânsâ mậtậ-rē ia the-youngest-one father-the said-to-him-he, 'O father, my share which dā.' Khān-gē hatīń-ke-tē äm-āñ-mē tīń-ak' bīsāe nām-eñ divided-having give-to-me-thou give.' Then mine get-I property tāyâm hữdīń hatīń-āt'-kīn-ā-e. Khān-gē dīn kâtäk hân-tāk' jâtâ divided-to-them-two-he. Then dayssome after young allsēt'-en-e; äņdä dâhân-ken-ak' $d\bar{s}\bar{o}m$ tāe-ak' sāmtāo-ke-tē sāngīn ār distant there hiscollected-having country went-he; andbeing tāe-ak'. ublā-dublā-ket'-ā-e. tahās-nahās-ket'-ā-e Ār jâtâ-gē bächâlân-tē squandered-he his. And allwasted-he, bad-living-in dīsōm āsū mārān ākāl pōṛā-y-en-ā, $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}$ anī-dâ rēngēj-ok' ēn-khān ānā country very great famine fell, and he to-hunger then that dīsõm-rēn rayât thān Khān-gē sän-ke-tē ānā mīat' lagā-y-en-ā-e. country-of one tenant with Then gone-having that began-he. anī-dâ āch'-ak' pâd-jáegā-tē sükri bāgāl ār japāk'-en-ā-e, andhehisoutside-property-place-to swinetending took-shelter, Ār sūkrī-kō jâm-ken-ak' chōklāk'-tē āch'-ak' lāhech' pērēch' kâl-kīch'-ē. husks-with his bellyfilling sent-him-he. And swine eating Khān-gē natān gārāj-ok' tāhān-ken-ā-e; kīntū jahāe kā-kō äm-āe-ken-ā. anyone not-they gave-to-him. Then wishing was-he; butfor chīmtit' mūnīs-kō-rēn 'iñ-ak' bābā-rēn chätân-en-te-y-e gām-ket'-ā-e, father-of how-many having-come-to-senses-he servants-of said-he, · my kīntū īń-dâ rängäch'-tē nändä bēndāk'bīsī-k'-tan-ak' tākō-ak'; māndi hunger-from hereperishingmore-becoming-is theirs; but food "hä bābā, sän-ok'-īñ ār gām-āe-īň, tan-ā-ñ. Bīrīt'-ke-tâch' bābā-tak' and shall-say-to-him-I, "O father, shall-go-Iam-I. Arisen-having father-to Ām-ak' hân nūtūmār sīrmā-rēn ār ām-ak' samān-rē pāp-tāt'-īń. henceforth to-callheaven-of and thypresence-in sinned-I. Thysonhōe-to-kā-ñ-mē." lâhâe-tan-īñ. Ām-ak' mīat' mūnīs lekā ok' layek one servant like be-let-me-thou." myself worthy not-being-am-I. Thy Khān-gē bīrīt'-ke-tē āch'-ak' āpū-tēt'-tān hīch'-en-ā-e. Kīn-tū sāngīn-rē Butdistance-at Then came-ke. arisen-having hisfather-to

mäyä-gē hich'-en-ak' āpū-tēt' lēl-nām-kīch'-ē, $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}$ dâhân-ken-rē-y-ē anī-ak' to-see-got-him-he, compassion camebeing-in-he hisfather andKin-tū hâbâr-kich'-ē: châk'â-kich'-ē. nīr-sän-ke-tē ār tāe-ak'; ār Butembraced-him-he; kissed-him-he. run-gone-having and his: and ār ām-ak' samān-rē pāp-tāt'-īń. 'hä bābā, sīrmā-rēn hấn gām-āch'-ē, sin-did-I. 60 father, heaven-of and thypresence-in said-to-him-he, son āpū-tēt' nūtūm-ok' layek lahae-tan-iñ.' Kin-tū Ām-ak' hân. ār the-father ButThyson henceforth to-call-myself worthy not-am-I. būgīn-ak' sânāk' 'dā, hatâk' nākār-kō gām-at'-kō-ā-e, iâtâ āch'-ak' robesaid-to-them-he, 'give, allfrom goodhis servants ār anī-ak' tihi-rē anti. ār ōdōn-agū-i-pē; tusin-tae-pe; $\bar{a}r$ ring, hand-on and take-out-bring-ye; and put-on-his-ye; and hisbaţī-hât'kātā-rē jutā tusīn-tāe-pē. Ār posão-ta-rên dāmṛā agū-ke-tē brought-having kill-quicklyshoe put-on-his-ye. And fattening-of calf foot-on jâmē-jâmē-lâk' rīj-rān-ā-bū. Kārân, nīk'ī īñ-ak' En-khān î-pē. Then eating-eating-with shall-make-merry-we. Reason, this my him-ye. hấn gấch'-gẽ tāhān-ken-ā-e, ār iit' ruār-en-ā-e; āt'-gē tāhān-ken-ā-e. and living returned-he; was-he, deadwas-he, sonnatān lagā-y-en-ā-kō. nām-en-ā-e.' Khān-gē rīj-rān ār began-they. found-was-he.' merry-making for Then

Kīn-tū anī-rēn mārān hấn lâyấn-rē tāhān-ken-ā-e. Ār ōrak'-tē hich'-But was-he. And his big field-in house-to comeson. nārēch'-en-rē änäch' ajūm-nām-ket'-ā-e. Khān-gē miat' dữrãn ār dancing to-hear-got-he. Thennear-having-in singing and one · rāk'ā-agū-ke-tē kūlī-kīch'-ā-e, 'ānā-kō-dâ mahīndār kōrā nārēch'-te near-to called-brought-having asked-him-he, those-things servantboy chekān-tan-ak'?' Anī-dā gām-āch'-ē, 'ām-ak' hūdīn hagā-m hīch'-akān-ā-e, what-kind-being? Hesaid-to-him. ' thy younger brother-thy come-has-he, āpū-m-dâ posao-taren damra batī-kīch'-e; kārân, bogīn-hârmâ ār ām-ak' father-thy fattening-of calf killed-him-he; thyreason, good-body andbâlâk' Khān-gē rangão-en-a-e, ār kā-e-ak'-ken-ā. nām-ruār-kīch'-ē.' not-would. got-back-him-he.' Thenenter angry-became-he, andÂtâk'-dâ ani-ren āpū-tēt' odon-hich'-ke-të lähâr-īch'-ken-ā-e. Kīn-tū anī-dâ So hisfatherout-come-having entreater-was-he. Buthe gām-ruār-ke-tē āpū-tēt'-kē gām-āch'-ē, 'näk'ä nitīt' bâchấr ám-ak' said-back-having father-his-to said-to-him-he. 'these so-many years thee-of mahīndār ām-ak' thān khatāok'-tan-īń. hukūm jahā-chīu-lân $\mathbf{h}\widetilde{\mathbf{o}}$ $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}$ withservant employed-am-I, andorder thyever even tārām-pārām-tāt'-īñ. kā-ñ Inā-rē-hö īń-dâ jahā-chīu-lân hõ miñat' transgressed-passed-I. not-I This-in-even ever me even one-singlemärâm hân-ge kā-m äm-tāt'-iñ-ā-m. jämân īń-ak' gatē-kō lâk' riiyoung not-thou goatgavest-me-thou, so-that friends with my merry-

rân-iñ. Kin-tū kūsmbī-kō lâk' ām-ak' bīsōi-dāulāt nâstâ-tat'-ē nik'i make-I. Butharlots withthyproperty-wealth wasted-he this hân-tām-ak' hich'-ka-tâch' posão-ta-ren dāmṛā-gē baṭī-kīch'-ā-m.' Kīn-tū $coming\hbox{-}after$ fattening-of son-thy calfkilledst-it-thou.' But'hā bachhā, ām-dâ anī-dâ gām-āch'-ē, dīn-gē īń-ak' lâk' mēnak'-mē-ā: hesaid-to-him-he, 60 son, thoudaysme-of with art-thou; jâtā īñ-ak'-kō-dā ām-ak'-tan-ak'. ār Kin-tū rīj-rān ār khūsī-gē and all my-things thine-are. Butmerry-making andrejoicing chāe; kārân, nīk'ī hagā-m-dâ gâch-gē tāhān-ken-ā-e, is-proper; reason, thisbrother-thy deadwas-he, andjīt'-en-ā-e; āt'-gē tāhān-ken-ā-e, ār nām-en-ā-e.' alive-became-he; lost was-he, found-was-he.' and

It has already been remarked that some of the Kōdās of the Sonthal Parganas are known under the name of Dhangar. Most Dhangars of the district speak Kurukh. Some of them, however, use a form of speech which is closely related to the Kōdā of Birbhum. I am indebted to the Rev. P. O. Bodding for a list of Standard Words and Phrases in that dialect. It will be found below on pp. 241 and ff.

The so-called Dhangar is almost identical with Kōḍā. In a few points, however, it differs.

The word for 'man' is $h\hat{a}_{r}\hat{a}$, but also $h\hat{a}_{r}$. 'Four' is $p\bar{o}n$ as in Santālī.

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is the same as in Kōdā. Thus the genitive suffixes $r\bar{e}n$ and ak are used promiscuously.

Most tenses of the verbs are formed as in the Kōdā of Birbhum. The categorical a is often dropped in the singular.

The copula $t\bar{a}n$ is often shortened to t when used to form the present. Thus, $d\bar{a}l - ek^2 - et - i\bar{n}$, I strike; $d\bar{a}l - ich^2 - et - i\bar{n}$, I strike him; $s\bar{e}nok^2 - t\bar{a}-l\bar{a}n$, we two go. Compare Khariā.

The final t' of the suffix tat' sometimes becomes r as in some dialects of Ho. Thus, dal-tar-ak' $dahak'-ken-i\tilde{n}$, I had struck.

In other respects the dialect is regular.

A Kōdā specimen has also been forwarded from Bankura. It is very corrupt, and it seems to show that the Kōdās of Bankura will soon abandon their old tongue for Bengali. Compare genitives such as hor-or, of a man; ghorkonnor, of the property; conjunctive participles such as birit'- $k\bar{e}$, having arisen, and so forth. The basis of the dialect is, however, a form of speech closely related to the Kōdā of Birbhum. A form such as $b\bar{a}$ -kan-a, I am not, corresponds to Muṇḍārī bang- $i\bar{n}$ -a. The negative particle is $k\bar{a}$; thus, $k\bar{a}$ -m-m-at-e, you did not give. Forms such as $n\bar{a}m$ -ed-a, I get; hui-en-a, it became; $senn\bar{a}$, i.e. sen-en-a, went; hating-ki-a-y-e, he divided, apparently agree with the Kōdā of Birbhum. Other forms occurring in the specimen do not furnish any indication regarding the relationship of the dialect.

I have restored the beginning of the very corrupt specimen as best I could. I have not, however, made any attempt at consistently restoring the semi-consonants.

[No. 18.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Kōdā.

(DISTRICT BANKURA.)

Miat(') hâro-r bāriā hâne tahin-kin-ā-kin. Inā-maddhē huring hàn-te man-of One two sons were-they-two. Them-among small 'bābā, bābā-kē gom-ke, ghorkonno-r bhāg jor nāmi, im-āng-me-dâ.' said, father-to father, whatproperty-of share shall-get, give-to-me-thou.' Unāk-nātik-kē bābā hating-ki-ā-y-e. Kichhu din bad-rē huring hân-te Them-for father divided. Some days after small80n ghorkonno(-r) bhāg au-ka-te akdara-metne(sic). Ani sen-ka-te ku-kāj-kete sharetaking property-of went-abroad. Hegone-having evil-deeds-with ghorkonna-te at(')-kete. Ana dēś sen-ka-te ghorkonna at(')-kete lost. That property country gone-having property lost-having akal-kete. Anā-tē aśu kasta hui-en-a. Ani hon-tē girastha sab-kete much distress became. famine-arose. There Hethenhouseholder joining āśraya nām-kete. Girastha piri-kë śukri gupi kul-ki-ā-ye. Śukri shelter found. Householder field-to swineto-tend sent-him-he. Swine gupi-kē amin-rē ani-a(k') man-rē gami-ā-y-e, 'ing bābā-reng chākar am-te tending that-in his mind-in said-he, 'my father-of servants gratis jom-nāme-ā, ing jom ka-i(ng) nām-ed-ā. Ing birit(')-kē bābā-thāng \boldsymbol{I} to-eat-get, to-eat not-Iget. Iarisen-having father-near gomi, " bābā, sarge-ri bongā tháng ar ama(k') tháng asu pap-ke-a-i(ng). near and will-say, "father, heaven-in Godtheenear much sinned. Āmā(k') hân-hâpân parichay-em-riā jogya bā-kan-ā. Bābā, āmā(k') chākar recognition-giving-of worthy Thy 80% nut-am. Father, thyservant lekhā in-kē-hå doh-ing-mē." likeme-also keep-me-thou."

HŌ OR LAŖKĀ KOL.

Hō is the dialect spoken by a Mundā tribe in Singbhum and the Tributary States to the south. The number of speakers is about 400,000.

Hō is the name of a tribe, and the language is often called Hō-kājī, i.e. the language Name of the Language. Of the Hōs. The word Hō is identical with hār and hārā, the words for 'man' in Santālī and Mundārī respectively. The Hōs are closely related to the Mundārīs, and they assert that they have come into their present homes from Chota Nagpur. In Singbhum they are usually known as the Larkā Kols, i.e. the fighting Kols. Mr. Bradley-Birt rightly remarks that they have fully justified this name. 'As far back as their annals go, they are found fighting, and always crowned with victory, driving back invaders or carrying war and devastation into the enemy's lands.' They have no sub-tribes, and the dialect is the same over the whole area where it is spoken.

The principal home of the Hōs is Singbhum, the neighbouring States of Kharsawan and Sarai Kala, and the adjoining districts of Morbhanj, Keonjhar, and Gangpur. They are found only in small numbers outside these localities. Their territory lies in the midst of the country inhabited by the Muṇḍārīs, and both dialects are spoken side by side in the frontier tracts. In Singbhum, however, Hō is the predominant language, even if we consider the Aryan forms of speech. This is particularly the case in the south-east, in the Kolhan or Kol territory proper.

It has already been mentioned that Kol or Kālhā has been returned as the dialect of numerous speakers in Hazaribagh, the Sonthal Parganas, and Manbhum, and that it is possible that some of the Kols of those districts speak Hō. The bulk of them, however, use a form of Santālī which has been described above under the name of Kārmālī.

Number of speakers.

Orissa Tributary States—

Athmallik

Daspalla

Keonjhar

Morbhanj

Daspana													
Keonjhar			- 51		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	45	
Morbhanj			•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	18,536	
		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		45,479	
Nilgiri		•	•	•	•	•		•				2,440	
Pal Laher	\mathbf{a}	•		•			•				۰	710	
Singbhum .													67,410
	m	٠.	•	•		•	•	•					205,433
Chota Nagpur	Tri	outa	ry St	ates—									,200
Sarai Kal				•					2023			0.075	
Kharsawa	n						•	•	•.	•	•	9,975	10
Gangpur			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	19,702	
Korea .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•				65,000	
		•	•	•	•	•	•					3	
Bonai .			•		•							3,348	
Sarguja .								125%		•	•		
						•	•	•	•	•	•	276	
													98,304
											Ton	TAL .	371,147
		-											,

Most of the speakers in the Chota Nagpur Tributary States were returned under the head of Kol, and it is possible that some of them in reality speak Mundari.

Outside the territory	where it	is spoken	às a	vernacular	Ηō	was	returned	from	the
following districts:-				**					

							**	8 ,80				
Bengal Presidence	y—											
Purnea .			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	3,00	- A	
Angul and E		ls .	•	. •	•		٠	•	•	4		
ere vita (ii	50 1					.,					3,046	
		•										-
Central Province	8											
Kalahandi											575	
Assam—		15	7.0	0.07.4	0.510000							
Cachar Plair	ıs .									4,02	8	2. (1.
Sylhet										1,75	0	
Kamrup										33	0	
Darrang										50	0	
Lakhimpur										1,75	0 -	
		•									- 8,358	
									_			
									Тот.	AL	. 11,979	
											-	
Hō spoken at hor Hō spoken abroad		•	:		:	•	:	:	:	:	. 371,147 . 11,979	
									Ton		. 383,126	
									1.01	AL	. 505,120	
At the last Cens	us of 1	901, 3	71.86	30 spe	ake	rs of I	Hō w	ere	retur	ned.	I have onl	v see
												•
e details from the	Б епда.	resi	пенс	y. 1	lney	are a	is tor	IO W	·		004	
Midnapore		•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	. 334	
Balasore .		•		•	•				•	•	. 244	
Angul and Khor	$_{ m idmals}$		•		•			•	•	•	. 35	
Manbhum .	٠. •			•					•	•	. 85	
Singbhum								•	•		. 235,313	
Orissa Tributary	States								•	•	. 96,249	
Chota Nagpur T	ributary	States			•				•		. 35,353	
									To	TAL	. 367,613	
									0.765		-	
TMITODIMING												

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- Mason, F.,—Burmah, its People and Natural Productions. Rangoon, 1860. Vocabularies, Koles, alias Ho, and Talaing, pp. 131 and ff.
- CAMPBELL, SIE GEORGE,—The Ethnology of India. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxv, Part ii, Supplementary Number, 1866. Appendix B, on pp. 204 and ff., contains a Comparative Table of Aboriginal words, Hos or Singbhum Kols, etc. Appendix F, on pp. 266 and f., contains vocabularies, Ho, etc., by Lieut.-Colonel Dalton. Appendix G, on pp. 268 and ff., is the reprint of Mr. Tickell's article in Vol. ix. See above.
- Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages.

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Dalton, E. T.,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Ho vocabulary by Rakhal Das Haldar.

Внім Ram Sulankhi,—Hokaji, or a Grammar in Ho Language. In Hindi. Benares, 1886.

Bompas, C. H.,—Folklore of the Kolhān. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxxi, Part iii, 1902, pp. 62 and ff.

The dialect of the Hos has no literature. I am not aware of any portion of the Scriptures having been translated into it.

The dialect itself is almost identical with Mundārī. The only difference of importance is the different treatment of the cerebral r. It is retained in Mundārī, but dropped in Hō. Compare $h\bar{o}$, Mundārī $h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, a man; koa, Mundārī $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, a boy; kui, Mundārī $k\bar{u}r\bar{i}$, a girl; rua, Mundārī $r\bar{u}\bar{a}r$, return; oak, Mundārī $\bar{o}rak$, house; moya, Mundārī $m\bar{a}re\bar{a}$, five; $d\bar{a}i$, Mundārī $d\bar{a}r\bar{i}$, to be able, and so forth. In a specimen received from Morbhanj, it is true, we find kola, a boy, but 'a house' is regularly oak'. It has already been remarked that the r in $d\bar{u}p$ ', Santālī durup', sit, is an old infix. The same is perhaps the case in many other instances where an r is dropped in Hō.

The short a is occasionally written o and e in the specimens received from the Sonthal Parganas. Thus the copula tan is also written ton and ten.

Note forms such as hujuk' instead of hijuk', come; ras-ate-y-a-ing, I might feast; jome-ka-ing, I may eat; ho-nang, to become, etc.

The semi-consonants are treated as in Mundari. The final t of verbal tenses commonly becomes d or d, or else it is retained, but very weakly sounded. In the grammar called Hokaji, mentioned above under authorities, forms such as jom-akad-a-ing, I have eaten, are said to be used when there is no animate object.

The change of n to l does not appear to occur. Thus we always find nel, see.

In other respects Hō is, so far as we can judge from the materials at our disposal, exactly like Mundārī, and it will be sufficient for further details to refer the student to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second the deposition of a witness, both received from Singbhum. The third is the statement of two accused persons taken down in the Sonthal Parganas. It is a comparatively good specimen, and I have therefore printed it, though Hō is not a vernacular of the district. The use of the word munda, village headman, shows that the speaker did not belong to the Sonthal Parganas.

[No. 19.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Hō or LARKA KOL.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT SINGBHUM.)

ho-ren baria koa hon-king tai-ken-a. In-king-te huringich'-do childrenThem-two-among two boy were. small-one A-certain man-of apu-te-ta-re kaji-ked-a-i, 'am-ak', okonak' apo-ng, biti-te aing-ak' hitad 'thy, father-my, property-in whatever mineshare said-he, father-his-to En-te ini ach'-ak' hobao-a ena aing em-aing-me.' biti hating-ad-king-a-e. me give-to-me-thou.' Then he self-of property divided-(to-)them-two-he. becomes that chi huring hon-do sabenjaha-jetanak'-ko senok'-yan-a Pura din went thatsmallson allwhatever days notMany sanging disum-te senok'-yan-a-e ondo en-pa-re etkan hundi-ked-ete country-in went-he andthere eviltogether-having-made far paiti-re dim-si tain-te biti-ko chaba-ked-a-i. Chimi-tan ini sabenak' chaba-renga-ked-a finished-he. Whenheallfinished-away doing-in always living goodsringa-ked-a, ondo ini rengech'-yan-a-e. Ondo isu disum-re en-te en famined, and destitute-became-he. And then that country-in muchdisum-ren miat' ho-ta-re tai-yan-a-i okoe ni ach'-ak' senok'-yan-te man-with stayed-he thatcountry-of onewhohimgone-having $_{
m ini}$ jokach'-te okonak'-ko kul-ki(ch')-a-e. Ondo en ote-re. sukuri gupi-te thathetime-in which-things swine keeping-in sent-him-he. Andfield-in pek'rech' sanang-tan-e tai-ken-a, ondo okoe-o ach'-ak' lach' jome-tan-a sukuri self-of belly to-fill wishing-he was, and anyone eating-were swine En-te ini atkar-ked-a tahi-ken-a. em-ai-tan jahanak'-o ka-ko Then he understoodnot-they giving-to-him were. anything nala-tan-ko jome-tan-te-ak'-te-re-y-o chimin 'apu-ing-ta-re kaji-ked-a, ini food-with-in-even father-my-near-in how-many servants said. Aing-do ka-ing ondo aing rengech'-goch'-tan-a. asul-ok'-tan-a isu-ko Me-as-far let-me-go and I hunger-die. subsist much-they torpur-reak' kaji-ai-a, apo-ng, senok'-a ondo aing apu-ing-ta-te and I will-say-to-him, "O father-my, heaven-of will-gofather-my-near-to chira ondo am-ta-reak' chira-tad-a-ing; ondo amak' hon men-te kaji aing and thee-of son to-say saying wronged-I;thee-near-of mit'-o. leka rika-ing-me." En-te ini Nala-tan-ko-te-re-o leka-o bang-ain-a. Then he keep-me." Servants-in-of-even one-even like not-am-I. worthy

uta-yan-te ach'-ak' apu-te-ta-te senok'-yan-a. Men-do ini sanging-re-ge arisen-having self-of father-his-near-to went. But he distance-at-indeed tai-ken-lok' ach'-ak' apu-te ach' nel-ki(ch')-te hiyating-yan-a ondo being-with self-of father-his him seen-having pitied and run-having ach'-ak' hotok'-re hambud-kete chereb-ki(ch')-a-i. Hon-te kaji-ai-tan-a, self-of neck-on embraced-having kissed-him-he. Son-the says-to-him, torpur-reak' chira ondo am-ta-re-y-o-ing chira-tad-a, ondo mit'-sa heaven-of wrong and thee-near-in-also-I wronged, and anymore amak' hon men-te-do ka-ko kaji-a-iñ-a.' Men-do apu-te ach'-ak' dasi-ko saying not-they shall-call-me.' Butfather-his self-of servants kaji-ad-ko-a-i, 'saben-ko-ete isu bugin lija ondong-kete pinda-i-pe, said-to-them-he, 'all-from much good cloth brought-having put-on-him-you, and ach'-ak' pola ondo kata-re karpa tusing-tai-pe; ondo ti-re abu jome-a-bu hishand-on ring and feet-on shoesput-his-ye; and we eat-will-we ondo rãs-a-bu, chi-kate-chi ne aiñ-ak' hon goch'-len-lok' jid-rua-len-a-i: and feast-will-we, because thisme-of son died-having alive-returned-he; ad-yan-lok' nam-rua-len-a-i.' En-te ini ras-atan-a. lost-having-been found-again-was-he.' Then feasted.

Ach'-ak' marang hon pipa-re tai-ken-a. Ondo oak' japak'-re hujuk'-len-a-e bigfield-in sonwas. And housenear en-te ru-atan-te ondo susun-tan-te-ak' sari ayum-ked-a-i. ondo ach'-ak' then playing-of and dancing-of sound heard-he, andself-of miat' dasi-ko-ete ho ach'-ta-te kaa-li(ch')-te kuli-ki(ch')-a-i, 'neya-do servants-from one man self-near-to called-him-having asked-him-he. chi-kan-a?' Ini kaji-ked-a, 'amak' undi-m hujuk'-len-a-e, ondo what-is ?' Hesaid, thee-of younger-brother-thy come-has-he, and apu-m-do isu bugin-te jom-ked-a-ko ena mente chi bugi-te-ge namfather-thy very wellfeasted-they thatsaying that well-indeed gotrua-ki(ch')-a-i.' Men-do ini kurkure-yan-a ondo bitar-te ka-i sen-sanang-ki(ch')-a. again-him-he.' Butheangry-became and inside not-he to-go-wished. Ena men-te ach'-ak' apu-te parka-te ol-yan-a-i ini manati-i-tan-a. Thatsaying self-of father-his outsidecame-out-he him entreats-him. En-te apu-te kaji-rua-a(ch')-a-i chi, 'nel-me, aing nimin sirma Then father-his said-back-to-him-he that, see, I so-many years hoba-yan-a am-ing saitiba-tad-me-a. ondo chuila-o am-ak' kaji ka-ing became thee-I served-thee, andever-even thee-of word not-Iuch'-ked-a. Men-do am chuila-o miat'-leka mindi hon ka-m transgressed. Butthou ever-even one-like goatyoung not-thou em-a(ch')-ing-a, chi aing aing-ak' jori-ko-lok'-ing ras-ate-y-a. Men-do amak' gavest-to-me, thatme-of friends-with-I feast-might. But thee-of en hon etkan paiti · era-ko-lok' juri-yan-te amak' biti-ko thisson bàd behaviour women-with joined-having thee of goods

jome-te-am bugin en-leka am rua-len-a, chi-leka-i jom-chaba-ked-a-i, welleating-in-thou thou then returned, when-he to-eat-finished-he, saben din am 'he hon, ini kaji-a(ch')-tan-a, jom-ked-a.' Apu-te alldays thou0 ' said-to-him, son, him Father-his atest. amak'. Men-do saben okonak' aingak' ena men-am-a, ondo aing-lok' But thine. allwhatever mine that andart, me-with Chi-kan men-te chi bugin-a. honang rãs-ate-ak'-ge sukhi-te-ak' ondo saying that W hat good-is. and merriment-indeed to-become happiness jid-rua-kan-a; oṇdo-i goch'-len-a-i, uṇdi-m amak' ne alive-returned-has; and-he younger-brother-thy dead-was-he, thee-of thisnam-rua-kan-a.' oṇḍo-i ad-len-a-i, and-he found-again-has-been.' lost-has-been-he,

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Hō or Larka Kol.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT SINGBHUM.)

DEPOSITION OF A WITNESS.

Balku. Apu-ing nutum Gono. Jāti Aingak' nutum Ho. Nala Balku. Father-my Myname nameGono. Caste Ho. Daily-wages Karkata. jom-tan-a-ing. Hatu

eat-I. Village Karkata.

Am chikana-m adan-a?

Thou what-thou knowest?

Aing ol-ken-a-ing. Pal-ko-ko tud-tan-a. 'Ape chikanak' I came-out-I. Ploughshares-they pulling-out-are. ' You whattud-tan-a?' 'Alo-m pal-ko-pe met-ale-y-a, men-te sobok'-goch'-me-' Not-thou saying ploughshares-you pull-out?' say-to-us, stab-kill-theea-le.' En-te munda-ing uta-ki(ch')-a. Munda uța-len dipli kumbu-ko shall-we.' Then Mundā-I raised-him. Mundā awoketimethieves Munda-lok'-te-ling nel-ked-ko-a. nire-yan-a. Pal-ko-ko tud-ked-a. Mundā-with-in-we-two saw-them. ran-away. Ploughshares-they pulled-out. Munda uta-len-te-ko nire-yan-a. Adong-ko-do ka-ing nel-urum-tad-ko-a. $Mund\bar{a}$ awoke-when-they ran-away. Others not-I recognized-them. Ni-king-ge-ng nel-ad-(king)-a. Gopa Duka kaji-ked-a-king, sobok'-goch' udube-re-do. Gopa Duka said-they-two, These-two-I saw. stab-kill tell-if. nel-ked-a-le, Setak'-pang oak' ka-ko bu-dai-te pal-ko-ko make-hole-able-being housenot-they Morning-in saw-we. ploughshares-they idi-ked-a. Hat betar nida-ko kumbu-ked-a. Hat basi-le took-away. Market daynight-they theft-made. Marketfollowing-day-we sab-ked-king-a. seized-them-two.

Chimtang-pe sab-ked-king-a? What-time-you seized-them-two?

Tara-singi Manki hujuk'-len-te sab-ked-king-a-le. **Duka** oak'-re baria Afternoon Manki come-having seized-them-two-we. Dukatwopal-le nam-ked-a. ploughshares-we found.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

My name is Balku, and my father's name is Gono. I am a Hō and subsist on daily wages. Karkaṭā is my village.

What do you know?

When I came out of the house, they were pulling out the ploughshares. I asked them why they did so, and they said that they would stab me if I spoke to them. Then I woke up the headman, and the thieves ran away. The headman and I saw them take off the ploughshares. I did not recognize the rest, but I saw these two. It was Gopa and Duka who said they would stab me if I informed against them. In the morning we saw that they had not been able to break into the house when they carried off the ploughshares. They committed the theft on the night of the market day, and we arrested them the following day.

At what time of the day did you arrest them?

In the afternoon after the arrival of the Manki. We found two ploughshares in Duka's house.

I-indeed

sowed,

and

they

harvested.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Hō or Larkā Kol.

SPECIMEN III.

(SONTHAL PARGANAS.)

```
Chi-kan numu-tem-a?
 What
         name-thy-is?
Ramai
        Ho, gomke.
Ramai
        Ho,
Amak'
        chi-lika
                   ujur
                           men-a?
                 petition
 Thy
         what
     hatu-reyak' mit'
Ale
                         ho
                              aiñak'
                                      ote
                                               eser-ked-a.
      village-of
Our
                                     land took-possession-of.
                  one
                        man
                               my
Okoi
        eser-ked-a?
Who
      dispossessed?
Soma
      Ho.
Soma Ho.
 Chimin
            sirma-y-ete
                                              si-ten-a-m?
                         am
                                en
                                     ote
How-many
            years-from thou that
                                            cultivatest-thou?
                                     land
Monu-y-ete si-ten-a-ing,
                         gomke.
             cultivate-I.
Manu-from
Nea kalom okoi
                     si-ked-a?
This
       time
              who cultivated?
  Ale-ge.
We-indeed.
Okoi
       \mathbf{e}\mathbf{n}
            ote-reyak'
                        pañcha
                                em-ten-a-e?
Who that
             land-of
                         rent
                                 giving-is?
Aing-ge. Moya
                  taka
                                 sika
                          ape
                                       ape
                                              ana
                                                    em-e-ten-a-ing.
   I.
          Five
                 rupees
                         three
                                sika three
                                             anna
                                                     giving-am-I.
 Okoi-ta
           em-ten-a-m?
Whom-to
           giving-art?
 Munda-ta.
Headman-to.
Okoi her-ked-a?
Who
        sowed ?
Aing-ge
         her-ked-a,
                     ondo ako-ge
                                     ir-ked-a.
```

Am-ak' gowa-ko menak'-ko-a?

Thy witnesses are?

Menak'-ko-a.

Are-they.

Soma hujuk'-akan-a chi?

Soma come-has what?

Nenre-ge men-a.

Here is.

Am-do Ramai-ak' ote eser-ked-a-m?

Thou Ramai's land dispossessedst-thou?

Ka, Gomke, ena-do ale-y-ak' ote; ale-ge her-ked-a.

No, Sir, this our land; we-indeed sowed.

Ayer-te okoi her-ked-a?

Formerly who sowed?

Ayer-te ale-ge her-ked-a. Tayum-te Ramai her-ura-ked-a. Formerly we-indeed sowed. Afterwards Ramai sowed-again.

Mah okoi si-ked-a?

Last-year who ploughed?

Ramai si-ked-a-e.

Ramai ploughed-he.

Chi-lika-te si-ked-a-e?

How ploughed-he?

miat' sukri Ramai bonga-lagit'-te miat' taka hasu-en-te Apu-ing ill-being Ramai sacrifice-for onerupee one pigFather-my lagit' ote sirma en baria em-ked-a-e, ondo bar sim-king ondo land for thattwoyears fowl-they-two twogave-he, and andsi-ked-a. sirma ach'-ge Tayum-te ai bandhar-ked-a. apu-ing he-indeed ploughed. years Afterwards. seven mortgaged. father-my goch'-en-a-e. \mathbf{En} em-kai-te mit' sirmatayum apu-ing Bandhar That died-he. year father-my Mortgage given-to-him-having afteronebar ' sirma kaji-ked-a-ing, tai-ken-a-ing. Men-do bara-bari huding dipli two said-I, years stillwas-I. Buttimesmallsi-a. Men-do ka-i bage-ked-a. chaba-ked-a. Na-do ale-ge cultivate-shall.' Butnot-he gave-up. we-indeed gone-have. Now ni-ge · sama-sama-te ondo pańcha em-ten-a-ing, aing-ge Bara-bari free-of-charge hegiving-am-I, andI-indeed rent Still si-ten-a-e. cultivating-is.

Amak' hatu-reyak' munda hujuk'-len-a-i?

Your village-of headman come-is-he?

Eyak', gomke, ni-do ale-y-ak' munda. Yes,Sir, this our headman.

Chikan numu-tem-a, munda? What name-thy-is, headman?

Goma Ho, gomke. Goma H_{0} Sir.

 \mathbf{En} epser-reyak' kaji adan-a-m? Thismutual-possessing-of matterknowest ?

Adan-a-ing, gomke. Soma-ta-ete pańcha nam-tan-a-ing. Know-I. Sir. Soma-from rent getting-am.

Bandhar-reyak' kaji adan-a-m chi? Mortgage-of matter knowest what?

Adan-a-ing. Ena-do bar sirma lagit' bandhar tai-ken-a. Know-I. This years for mortgagewas.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

What is thy name? Ramai, a Hō, Sir. What is thy petition? Somebody of our village has taken possession of my land. Who? Soma. How many years hast thou cultivated it? From the oldest time, Sir. Who did the ploughing this time? We. Who pays the rent? I. I pay five rupees, 15 annas. To whom dost thou pay? To the headman. Who did the sowing?

Hast thou taken possession of Ramai's land? No, Sir, it is our land, and we have sowed it. Who did so from the beginning? We, but later on Ramai did. Who ploughed last year? Ramai. How came that to pass?

I, but they did the harvest. Hast thou any witnesses?

Has Soma come in ?

Yes.

Here he is.

My father had been taken ill, and Ramai lent us one rupee, a pig, and two fowls for the offerings. My father then mortgaged his land for a period of two years, but he went on ploughing for seven years. One year after having mortgaged his land my father died. I was then a boy, but still I said, 'two years have passed, and now we shall take over the cultivation.' But he did not give up the land. Nevertheless, I pay the rent, and he is cultivating free of charge.

Is the headman of your village here? Yes, Sir, here he is.

What is thy name, headman? Goma, Sir. Dost thou know about this quarrel? Yes. I get the rent from Soma. Dost thou know about the mortgaging? Yes. It was for a period of two years.

TŪRĪ.

According to Mr. Risley, the Tūrīs are 'a non-Aryan caste of cultivators, workers in bamboo, and basket-makers in Chota Nagpur. The physical type of the Tūrīs, their language and their religion, place it beyond doubt that they are a Hinduised off-shoot of the Muṇḍās. In Lohardaga, where the caste is most numerous, it is divided into four sub-castes— $T\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$ or $Kis\bar{a}n$ - $T\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$, Or, Dom, and $Domr\bar{a}$ —distinguished by the particular modes of basket and bamboo-work which they practise ... Tūrīs frequently reckon in as a fifth sub-caste the Birhâṛs, who cut bamboos and make the $sik\bar{a}s$ used for carrying loads slung on a shoulder yoke (bahangi), and a kind of basket called phanda. Doms and Domrās speak Hindi; Tūrīs, Ors, and Birhâṛs use among themselves a dialect of Muṇḍārī.'

The Birhâr dialect is closely related to Muṇḍārī, and the speech of the Tūrīs also agrees with that language in most essential points. In a few characteristics, however, it follows Santālī, as against Muṇḍārī.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey, Tūrī is spoken in Ranchi, the Jashpur State, Sambalpur, and Sarangarh. The following are the revised figures returned for the purposes of this Survey:—

Ranchi													456
Jashpur Star	te												2,000
Sambalpur													1,000
Sarangarh	•	•	•		٠			•				•	271
											To	TAL	3,727
he correspo	ndin	g fig	ure	s at t	he C	ensu	s of I	901	were	as fo	ollow	s:	
Burdwan							٠.						38
24-Parganas													384
Jessore													94
Dinajpur													258
Jalpaiguri													547
Darjeeling													209
Bogra													546
Sonthal Parg	ganas												1
Ranchi													450
Palamau													24
Singbhum													39
Chota Nagpu	ır Tri	butar	y Sta	ates									630
Sambalpur	•	•						•				•	660
											To	r a l	3,880

In Sambalpur the Tūrī dialect is almost pure Mundārī. 'A man' is, however, hor, i.e. probably $h\bar{a}r$, and not $h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$. Compare Santālī. Forms such as $p\bar{e}\bar{a}$, three; $p\bar{u}ni\bar{a}$, four, in Tūrī agree with Santālī, as does the phonology of the dialect in most points. Thus we find $n\bar{e}l$, to see, in Jashpur, but lel in Ranchi.

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is mainly regular. The dative-accusative adds the Aryan ke, and the two genders are occasionally confounded. Thus, ap-tai-ke, to his father; sukri-ren jojomak', the swine's food. In Sarangarh we find forms such as apan, is, and the singular and plural forms of the pronouns are often confounded in the

TŪRĮ.

specimen from that State; thus, $yem-\bar{a}d-i-y-\bar{a}-e$, he gave him, i.e. them; $\bar{a}m$, thou, instead of $\bar{a}p\bar{e}$, you, and so forth.

The inflexion of verbs agrees with Santālī, but replaces the k of kan by t in the same way as in Mundārī. The distinction between the various suffixes which are used to denote past time is rather loose. On the whole, however, the conjugation is regular. Compare senok'-a-ing, I shall go; katha-i-a-ing, I shall say to him; bigur-jun- \bar{a} -pe, you will become at variance with yourselves; goch'-tan- \bar{a} -ing, I die; sap'-ked- \bar{a} , seized; $l\bar{a}t\bar{e}k$ '-lid-i- \bar{a} , struck him; hoi-en- \bar{a} , became, and so forth.

In the Sarangarh specimens the verb substantive is *idān-ā*, past *doho-len-ā*. Compare Asurī and Māhlē. There are also several irregular forms. They will, however, be easily understood from the specimen.

Note also forms such as $k\bar{a}n-i\tilde{n}-\bar{a}$, I am not; $k\bar{a}n-ok'-\bar{a}$, it is not.

Further details will be easily understood from the specimens which follow. The first is the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son received from Ranchi. The second has been forwarded from the Jashpur State and contains the complaint of a villager over hard times. The third is a version of a well-known story in the Tūrī dialect of Sarangarh.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

TŪRĪ.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT RANCHI.)

Miat' chhaua nor-ke baria tahi-ken-a-kin. Ini-ate huringich' Qne man-to twosons were-they-two. Them-from young-the apu-tekathad-i-v-a-i. °е aba. khurji-ke ing-ke hating-aing-me.' father-the said-to-him-he, · 0 father, me-to property divide-to-me-thou.' Oro ach'-ak' khurji hating-ad-kin-a-i. Thora din tayom-te huringich' And his property divided-to-them-two-he. Fewdaysafter small-the sobenak' samtao-ked-te sanging disum-te senok'-en-a-i, oro hon-te kharab allcollected-having distantcountry-to went-he, andthere evilkami-re din-din ach'-ak' khurji dubi-chaba-tad-a-i. Sobenak' chaba-ked-te doing-in day-by-day hisproperty waste-finished-he. Allfinished-having hana muluk-re pure akal hei-en-a, rengech'-en-a-i. oro Oro thatcountry-in bigfamine destitute-became-he. arose, and And sen-ked-te una raj-ren miat' hor-lok' tahi-ken-a-i. gone-having that country-of one man-with stayed-he. ach'-ak' Uni uni-ke gãr-re sukri chara-te-ko kul-tad-i-a-i. Uni Hehis field-in himswinefeeding-in-them sent-him-he. He sukri-ren jojomak'-e koi-ken-a-i ach'-ak' lach' biok' oro okoe-ho ini-ke swine-of food-he demanded.he his to-fill and belly anyone him-to ka-ko em-ai-ken-a. Oro ini-ak' urung-ked-te ii-re katha-la(k')-i, not-they gave-to-him. And his mind-in said-he, sense-getting 'ap-taing-ren naukar-ke jojom-ak' hena; ing rengech'-goch'-tan-a-ing. \mathbf{bahut} 'father-my-of servants-to muchfood is: I hunger-die-I. Ing birid-ko-te ap-taing-ta senok'-a-ing oro ini-ke-ng katha-i-a-ing, arisen-having father-my-near Igo-shall-Iand him-to-I say-to-him-shall-I, "ho aba, swarg-ren birud oro amak' birud-ing gunh-akad-a-ing. Ing-ke " O father, heaven-of against and thee-of against-I sin-have-done-I. Mechhaua-leka alu do-ing-me, ing-ke dhangar-leka do-ing-me." Oro son-likedo-not keep-me, me servant-like keep-me." Andbirid-ko-te senok'-en-ai. ap-tai-ta Sanging-re tahi-ken-a-i, apa-tai arisen-having father-his-near went-he. Distance-at was-he. father-his lel-lid-i-a-i aur kuda-sen-len-a-i harub-ko-te oro chok'-lid-i-a-i. saw-him-he and ran-went-he and embraced-having kissed-him-he.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

TŪRĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(JASHPUR STATE.)

Dulā. māt' āgu-y-ā. Hēltā bhēţāw-ā ōnā-kē-hō āgu-y-ā. Come. bamboo shall-bring. Sprouts are-found them-also shall-bring. Helta-ren handua bānāy-ā-ū, Māt'-rēn āur ākriñ-ā. jhātī tëngë-y-a. Sprouts-of handua shall-prepare, and shall-sell. Bamboo-of matshall-weave. Tihing ōrāk'-rē chē-kānāk'-hō jomē-tē kānōk'-ā. Ōnā-kun-rē māt' To-day house-in anything not-is. eating-for Thereabout bambcokānōk'-ā. Ōnā buru jāti sangiń-ā. Nonde-ren māt' kānōk'-ā. That is-not. mountainvery distant-is. Here-of bamboo not-is bēs. Bir nēs löök'-kān-ā. Ōnā-sē look'-kete mät' kharāpgood. Wood this-year burnt-was. Therefrom burnt-having bamboo bad-Ing dui ānā-rēn ōt ēn-ā. sī-y-ā-ing. Hol-kalom-ren huru $k\bar{a}$ became. \boldsymbol{I} twoann a-of fieldcultivate-I. Last-year-of paddy not hōi-lēn-ā. Chālis man itā hēr-tāhī-lā(k')-ing. Sē itā ōnā-hō kā became. Forty measures seedsowed-I. Thatseed that-even not ruār-lēn-ā. huru Sagrō kēārī-rēn rohor-en-a, dāk' kā-ē pūrā-lāk'-a. returned. Allfield-of paddydried-up, waternot-he was-sufficient. Machkam-kē kuchā-tād-ā-ē. kārā Inā-nēgi machkam-hō jāti mahrang-en-a. Machkam hail smashed. Therefore machkam-even much dear-became. Nēs nt? hōi-lēn-ā. Iñāk' jāti ūl-sing nēs-rēn jō-tāhi-This-year mushrooms mango-tree this-year-of fruitfulmany grew. Mykēn-ā. Magar ōnā ūl-hō kā bili-lēn-ā. Berel-ti-gi gōt'-chābā-tān-ā-kū, was. that mango-even notripened. Unripe-being gather-finish-they. Jē bānchā-lēn-ā, tē-kē ōnā-kē chōr idi-tān-ā-kū. Nōā ūl biliōk'-rē What left-was, that thieres stole-they. This mango ripens-when sibil-ēn-ā. jātis Pahil jāti jō-y-ōk'-kēn-ā; nāhāk'-do $k\bar{a}$ jō-y-ōk'-ā. Formerly much fruitful-was; very sweet-became. notfruitful-is.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Come, let us bring bamboos and also the young shoots if we find any. We will make handua¹ from them and sell it. And we will weave bamboo mats. We have

nothing to eat in the house, and there are no bamboos in the neighbourhood. Yonder mountain is very far off, and the bamboos here are not good. The woods were burnt this year, and the bamboos have become bad from the burning. I cultivate a field at a rent of two annas. Last year there was no rice. I had sowed forty maunds, but it did not come up. The rice of my whole plot dried up because the rain was not sufficient. The machkam was smashed by hail, and so even machkam has become dear. There were many mushrooms this year. My mango tree was full of fruit, but they did not ripen. They were gathered up and eaten unripe, and what was left was stolen by thieves. The fruit of that mango tree is very sweet when it is ripe. It used to be loaded with fruit, but now there is none.

¹ Machkam is Santālī matkām, Bassia latifolia. The flowers are an article of food with most of the Munda tribes.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

TŪRĪ.

SPECIMEN III.

(STATE SARANGARH.)

Un-kū ākū-te korā doho-len-ā. harmā hor pūre Mit'-hor They self-among old-man man many were. One-man chiknak' samjhāi-yā-e, kā Ābā un-kū-ke khūb aur jhagrā-ken-ā-kū. and anything Father them muchadmonishes, notquarrelled-they. korā-ke hukum yem-ād-i-ā-e tayom-te Huni apan hoi-len-ā. order Heafterwards his sons-to gave-to-him-he became. tab hukum em-lā(k')-e mit'-bīrā sahan, aur hūnī-kagrā āgui-mī order then one-bundle sticks, and gave-he him-before bring Jahãy sabinich' petej-etekā. noā-ke mimiat' achchhā-bal-ke-te hun-kū thatallto-break. Anybody good-force-with one-one themkā hoi-len-ā chenā-āngi śahan jorā-kete upāya-lā(k')-kū, chiknak' aur notbecause sticks closely andanything became tried-they, petej-etekā onā-ke mit'-hor hor-ren bal dohi-la(k')-ā-e, aur tol-te one-man man-of force and to-break them was-he, -binding ābā bojhā rārā-ta-pe hukum em-ād-[kā] doho-len-ā. Tayom śak to-unloose-your order gave-to-Afterwards father bundle possible [not] was. mit'-hor korā yem-kan-ā-e. Inā-tayom mimiyat' śahan aur i-yā-e, giving-was-he. This-after stickone-man boy and one-one him-he. em-lā(k')-e. Mit' hor-te śahan ach'-te-gī petech'no-ke hukum petej-etekā gave-he. man-the stick self-from brokethat order One to-break 'he miyat'-ré kathā-lā(k')-e, iñak' bābūtī. bal Tab ābā ān-ā. 0 unity-in sons. for-himself. Then father said-he, my force mil-kete dohon-ā-le(sic.), mit' ninkā dost-kete bilkul val-i-mi. Ju $\bar{a}m$ thoufriendly strictly joined-having are-you (sic.), see. jab jhagrā-kete bigar-jundukh alū yeme-kā-e. Pher āpe hor are-separatednotgives-he. But quarrelling you man sorrow ach' bairī-ko-te ahāre parā-y-am.' ā-pe for-yourselves self-of enemies-by prey fall-wilt.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

An old man had many sons who were always quarrelling. He often remonstrated with them, but in vain. At last he ordered his sons to bring a bundle of sticks before him, and asked each of them to break it. They tried with all their force, but in vain, because the sticks had been tightly tied together, and one man could not manage to break them. Then the father asked them to untie the bundle and gave each boy one stick to break. They easily did so, and the father said, 'behold the force of unity. If you will live in friendship, nobody can do you any harm; but if you quarrel and separate, you will be a prey to your enemies.'

ASURĪ.

Asuri is the dialect spoken by the Asurs, a non-Aryan tribe of Chota Nagpur. So far as can be judged, from their language, the Asurs are closely related to the Korwas.

Colonel Dalton connects the Asurs with the Asuras who, according to Muṇḍā tradition, were destroyed by Sinbonga, and Mr. Risley is inclined to think that they are the remnant of a race of earlier settlers who were driven out by the Muṇḍās. The Rev. F. Hahn mentions that the Asurī dialect contains some Dravidian words which have possibly been borrowed from Kurukh, and also some words which he cannot identify in connected languages. This latter fact would point to the same conclusion as that arrived at by Messrs. Dalton and Risley. It will, however, be shown later on that at least some of the words which Mr. Hahn thinks are neither Kurukh nor Muṇḍā are used in other connected forms of speech. Moreover, Asurī grammar so closely agrees with Santālī and Muṇḍārī that there is no philological reason for separating the Asurs from other Muṇḍā tribes. They believe in a god whom they apparently identify with Sinbonga, the sun, and their religion is, so far as we know, of the common Muṇḍā character. We are not, however, in this place concerned with their origin. So far as philology is concerned, they are a Muṇḍā tribe pure and simple.

According to Mr. Hahn 'the tribe is divided into several sections, viz.,— the Agōriā, the Brijiā or Binjhiā, the Lōharā, the Kōl, and the Pahāriā-Asurs. These sub-tribes are again divided into totemistic sections, which are similar in name to those found among other Aborigines in Chota Nagpur. The chief occupation of the Asurs is smelting iron, and, in the case of the Lōharā Asurs, the making of rude iron utensils and agricultural implements; they also till the jungle in a most primitive manner.'

Number of speakers. According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey, Asuri was spoken in the following districts:—

														CLEOUZEO!
Ranchi	· ·		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	8,025
Jashpur	State	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	1,000
			•								r	OTAL		9,025

The so-called Agōriā or Agariā has only been returned from Ranchi. No information has been available as to the number of speakers. The Census figures for the tribe are 1,616.

The so-called Brijiā, which is also called Kōrāntī, has been returned as the dialect of 3,000 individuals in Palamau. The Brijiās in Ranchi were included under the head of Agariā.

By adding	these	figu	es	we	arrive	\mathbf{at}	the	fol	lowi	ng to	tal f	or As	surī :	_	
Asuri pro	per														9,025
Agōriā		•					6								1,616
Brijiā															3,000

TOTAL . 13,641

To this total should be added 6,000 speakers in the Raigarh State, 4,000 of whom were reported to speak Mānjhī, while 2,000 were entered under the head of Mundārī. At the last Census of 1901, Mānjhī and Brijiā were returned instead. Mānjhī is a common title among the Asurs, and the specimens forwarded from Raigarh in the so-called Mundārī

and in the so-called Mānjhī both represent a form of speech which is apparently most closely related to Asurī. See below. The following are then the revised figures:—

Asuri and sub-dialect												
So-called Māñjhī	•		•		. •		•		•	•	•	4,000
So-called Mundārī	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		2,000
									\mathbf{T}_{0}	TAL		19,641

This total is considerably above the mark. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:—

Jalpaiguri				•	-							553	
Ranchi		•			·.							2,482	
Palamau		•								•		44	
Chota Nag	pur	Tribu	tary	States								47	
													3,126
So-called Māñjh	i of	Raiga	rh										22
Agariā—											ā		77.7
Jalpaiguri		,										1	
Ranchi												119	
Palamau												161	
Chota Nag	pur	Tribu	tary	States								42	
													323
Brijiā													
Brijiā— Darjeeling												8	
Brijiā— Darjeeling Ranchi	:	:	:	:	:	:			:	•		8 13	
Darjeeling Ranchi		:	:	:	:	:	;	:	:	•	:	13	
Darjeeling Ranchi Palamau	:	Tribu	tary	States	:	:	:	:	:	:		13 1,052	
Darjeeling Ranchi Palamau Chota Nag	:	Tribu	tary	States	:	•	:	:	:	:		13 1,052 304	
Darjeeling Ranchi Palamau Chota Nag Raigarh	:	Tribu	tary	States	:	•	:	:	:	:		13 1,052 304 20	
Darjeeling Ranchi Palamau Chota Nag Raigarh Wardha	pur	Tribu	tary	States	: : : : : :	:	:	: : : :	:	: : : :	:	13 1,052 304 20 1	
Darjeeling Ranchi Palamau Chota Nag Raigarh	pur	Tribu	tary	States		:	:	:	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	:		13 1,052 304 20	
Darjeeling Ranchi Palamau Chota Nag Raigarh Wardha	pur	Tribu	tary	States	: : : : :	:	:	:		:		13 1,052 304 20 1	1,423

It will be seen that these forms of speech are rapidly dying out, and their total disappearance can only be a question of time.

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Hahn, Rev. Ferd.,—A Primer of the Asur dukmā, a dialect of the Kolarian language. Communicated by Dr. G. A. Grierson, C.I.E. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. Ixix, Part i, 1900, pp. 149 and ff.

Several specimens of Asurī have been received from Ranchi and from the Jashpur State.

Most of them are more or less mixed with Mundārī. One specimen, however, a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, has been kindly prepared by the Rev. Ferd. Hahn who has made a special study

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of the dialect. It will be reproduced, together with one of the Jashpur specimens, in the ensuing pages. No specimens have been forwarded of the so-called Agōriā. The dialect is, however, stated to be the same as ordinary Asurī. The same is also the case with the so-called Brijiā. A list of Standard Words and Phrases in that dialect has been received from Palamau. It will be referred to in what follows. It represents the same form of speech as ordinary Asurī.

In addition to the list of words two specimens purporting to be written in Brijiā have been forwarded from Palamau. They are very corrupt and represent a mixed form of speech. A short account of it will be given below on pp. 143 and ff. In this place we shall deal with Brijiā as represented by the list of words, *i.e.* as identical with Asurī.

Like Tūrī, Asurī is a dialect of the language which we have called Kherwārī, the two principal forms of which are Santālī and Muṇḍārī. Asurī is more closely related to the latter than to the former, though it, in many respects, agrees with Santālī.

Pronunciation.—The pronunciation mainly agrees with Mundārī. The palatal \tilde{n} , however, does not become n, but is retained or else changed to y; thus, $\tilde{n}el$, see; yam, get.

An h is sometimes changed to v in the specimens prepared by Mr. Hahn; thus, $v\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, village; $vej \cdot u(k')$, come. This must be due to Dravidian influence. An initial v or w is, e.g., unknown in Santālī. An r is, in the same specimens, occasionally changed to r, as is also the case in Kārmālī; thus $r\bar{u}ar$, to return; but hor, a man.

Mr. Hahn does not mention the semi-consonants. He speaks of 'the check which often occurs after a vowel and especially when two vowels stand together.' This remark can only refer to the semi-consonants, and I have, therefore, added them in the specimen within parenthesis. The Jashpur specimens mark the semi-consonants, though in a very inconsistent way. As in Mundari and Hō, the corresponding soft consonants are often substituted for them.

Mr. Hahn usually writes a long vowel instead of a final semi-consonant. In other cases he uses the corresponding soft consonant. Spellings such as goj and god, die; ved-kan-ā, has come; but vej-u(k')-mē, come, however, point to the conclusion that the phonetical system of Asurī in this respect agrees with Santālī and Mundārī, and I have therefore added the sign of the semi-consonants. Thus I write dukumā-lak'-ā, said, instead of Mr. Hahn's dukumā-la'-a; neā-rak'-a-tē, for this reason, instead of his neā-ra'-a-tē, lit. from that of this; mīat', one, instead of his mīad; ranget', i.e. probably, rangech', famine, instead of his ranget and so forth.

Soft consonants are apparently sometimes substituted for hard ones; thus, doho-ken-ā, was, compare Dhangar dāhāk'-ken-ā; gatad-i-ā, he said to him, and so forth. Note also ov-ai-me, Santāli em-ae-me and ew-ae-me, give him, and so forth.

Vocabulary.—Mr. Hahn mentions several instances where Asurī differs slightly from ordinary Muṇḍārī. Thus, hopon, Muṇḍārī hon, child; kūl, Muṇḍārī kulā, tiger; durup', Muṇḍārī dūp', sit; tihin, Muṇḍārī tisin, to-day; ōt, Muṇḍārī otē, field; hātin, Muṇḍārī hanāṭin, share; pēā, Muṇḍārī apī-ā, three, and so forth. In all the cases mentioned, and in several similar ones, Asurī agrees with Santālī. It should, however, be borne in mind that such slight divergencies do not represent different words but different forms of the same word. Thus Santālī, and also Muṇḍārī, possesses both the simple hān, child, and the collective hāpān. Similarly sodor, to arrive, to approach, which Mr. Hahn

considers as a genuine Asurī word, is the same word as Santālī sor, and so forth. It is very unsafe to base any conclusions on such facts so long as we do not know more of Asurī, and of the formation of words in the Mundā languages in general.

According to Mr. Hahn there are many words in Asur which he cannot identify in connected languages. It would be rash to infer anything from this fact. Some of the words mentioned by him are good Mundā words. Thus, $h\bar{e}r\bar{e}$, husk (Santālī $h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$); $hur\bar{u}$, i.e. $hur\bar{u}$, unhusked rice (Santālī $hor\bar{o}$); javar, gather (Santālī jaora); usul, high (Santālī $us\bar{u}l$); numun, thus (Santālī $n\bar{u}m\bar{v}n$, so much); nes, this year (Santālī $n\bar{a}s$); usad, angry (Santālī usat), and so on. Some of these words are, of course, originally loanwords, but they are not peculiar to Asurī. The case with the other words mentioned by Mr. Hahn is probably similar, and all words in Asurī which are not true Mundā words are probably borrowed from some Aryan or Dravidian form of speech.

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns is quite regular.

The suffixes of the dual and the plural are kin, $k\bar{u}$ (or $k\bar{o}$), respectively.

The dative-accusative is sometimes formed by adding the Aryan suffix $k\bar{e}$. Usually, however, the dative and the accusative are indicated in the verb.

The suffixes of the genitive are \bar{a} (i.e. probably ak'), $r\bar{a}$ (i.e. rak'), ren, reni (i.e. renich').

Numerals.—The first numerals are 1, $m\bar{\imath}at'$; 2, $bari\bar{a}$; 3, $p\bar{e}\bar{a}$; 4, $upuni\bar{a}$; 5, $moy\tilde{a}$; 6, $turi\bar{a}$; 7, $aiy\bar{a}$; 8, $irliy\bar{a}$; 9, $are\bar{a}$; 10, $gele\bar{a}$. For five, etc., however, the Hindī numerals are commonly used. Note banar, both, as in Santālī.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns are regular. 'I' is in; and 'you two,' aban. There is some confusion in the use of the suffixed pronouns in the specimens. Thus we find $\bar{a}pun$ -in, my father, instead of 'his father.'

The demonstrative pronouns are $hin\bar{\imath}$, this; dual, hi-kin, plur. $hi-k\bar{\imath}$; $hun\bar{\imath}$, and $h\tilde{\imath}i$, that. Besides we also find $min\bar{\imath}$ and $mun\bar{\imath}$. $Nih\bar{\imath}$, this very, is probably written for $nik'\bar{\imath}$. The same forms are said to be used for inanimate nouns as well. We also find, however, regular forms such as $ne\bar{a}$, $min\bar{a}$, $hon\bar{a}$. The Brijiā list from Palamau has forms such as $minin\bar{a}$, his; $mu-k\bar{u}n\bar{a}$, their.

'What?' is $chitan\bar{a}$, i.e. probably chitanak'. In other respects the pronouns are apparently quite regular.

Verbs.—There is a verb $\bar{\imath}dan$ - \bar{a} , (he) is, which is often used as an impersonal verb; thus, $\bar{\imath}dan$ -me- \bar{a} , thou art. In the Brijiā list from Palamau we also find the ordinary men- \bar{a} , is. The base doho, to remain, is used like Santālī $tah\bar{a}n$; compare Dhangâr. We also find forms such as tehi-ken- \bar{a} or tahi-ken- \bar{a} (Jashpur) and tai-ken- \bar{a} (Brijiā of Palamau), was. In Jashpur we also find the Aryan $h\bar{e}k\bar{e}$, is. Compare Khariā.

The passive is formed by adding o or $v\bar{a}$, i.e. ok. Thus, $sen-o(k)-\bar{a}$, I shall go; $rug-o(k)-\bar{a}$, reduplicated future of ru, beat, and so on.

The tenses are, so far as we can judge from the materials, formed as in Mundari. Note the prefixing of ov (i.e. w) before suffixes beginning with a vowel; thus, hatin-ovat'-kin-a, divided to them two.

The future does not take any suffix. Thus, $sen-o(k')-\bar{a}$, I shall go; $r\bar{u}-e-y-\bar{a}$, I shall strike.

The suffix of the present is tan; thus, nel-tan-a-e, he sees.

ASURĪ.

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In the past I have noted the following suffixes, ked, ken, tad, la(k'), led, len and yan. Thus, kul-ked-me- \bar{a} -e, he sent thee; giti(ch')-ken- \bar{a} , slept; sen-tad- \bar{a} , went; $dukm\bar{a}$ -la(k')- \bar{a} -e, he said; $r\bar{u}$ -lid-i-a- $i\bar{n}$, I struck him; doho-len- \bar{a} , he was; sen-yan- \bar{a} , he went. In other specimens we often find en, nen, nan and an instead of yan; thus, sen-en- \bar{a} , went; hich'-nen- \bar{a} , came; akal-nan- \bar{a} , hunger arose; seno(k')-an- \bar{a} and $senon\bar{a}$, he went, and so forth. The suffix nen is especially common in the Jashpur specimens. Note also forms such as $ov\bar{a}$ -ld-i- \bar{a} , gave to him, Santālī em-ad-e-a and ew-ad-e-a.

The perfect ends in kan; thus, ved-kan-ā-e, i.e. vech'-kan-ā-e, he has come.

There is a verbal noun ending in ta'- \bar{a} , i.e. probably tak' or teak'; thus, jom- $ta'\bar{a}$, to eat.

The noun of agency ends in ae, i.e. probably ach'; thus, jojomae, an eater.

The negative particles are $k\bar{a}$, $al\bar{o}$, and $alo-k\bar{a}$. 'Not to be' is $kano\bar{a}$ or $kuni\bar{a}$.

The causative particle is said to be $g\bar{e}$; thus, durup'- $g\bar{e}$ -tan- \bar{a} -in, I cause to sit. It can however be doubted whether this $g\bar{e}$ is not the ordinary intensifying particle $g\bar{e}$.

In other respects Asuri seems to agree very closely with Mundari and Santāli.

[No. 25.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Asurī.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. F. Hahn.)

(DISTRICT RANCHI.)

Mīat' hor-rēni(ch') bariā hopon-kiń doho-len-ā. A-kin-etē hurin huni-ā Them-two-from small hisman-of twosons-they-two were. bābā, in-ā hāṭin īdan-ā, hunī ov-āin-mē.' Niho āpun dukumā-la(k'), c oe Then · 0 father, my share is, thatgive-to-me. said, father Nimin diplē tayom-rē hurin hopon soben hātin-ovat'-kin-ā. hinī banar share-gave-to-them-two. Some daysaftersmall he bothdisum-tē sen-yan-ā oro honā adē-rē kā-pārilā kāmī-tē javar-ked-tē sanin that place-in not-good work-with collected-having distant country-to wentandchaba-ked-tē honā disum-rē bekär ranet'-van-ā. soben dubāu-ked-ā. Soben country-in much famine-became, wasted. Allfinished-having thatallNiho hinī sen-kan-tē honā disum-rā mīat' hinī ranet'-yan-ā-e. hed gone-having that country-of one famished-he. Then heandHuni mini ōt-rē sukrī-kū ñel-taā bidā-lid-i-ā. Niho doho-len-ä. adē himfield-in sent-him. Then Heswine see-to stayed. near jom-doho-la(k')-ā-e hunī-tē $in-\bar{a}(sic.)$ poţā pērēj-o(k')-yan-ā, sukrī hērē hinī eating-was-he that-with hisbellyfilling-was, huskhedukumā-lā(k'), 'in-ā hed hunī okoe kā ovāld-i-ā. Niho hinī īriyan-tē and him anyone not gave-him. Then he conscious-having-become said, Hu-kū adē kudahā kāmī-kū īdan-ā. jojom idan-ā, kudahā āpun-ren-kū Them much food servants are. near father-of-they many is, goj-og-o(k')-yan-ā. In birid-o(k')-in oro āpun-in adē ranet'-tē hed in dying-am. I shall-arise-Iand father-my and I hunger-with near "oe dukumā-e-n, āpun-in, in sirmā-rē am-ā seno(k')-in hed shall-say-to-him-I, "O father-my, I heaven-in thee-of andshall-go-I Hed-tē maran-rē am-rēni hopon-in pāp-ked-ā. dukumā-y-ā maran∙rē thy80n-I Hence in-future shall-say sinned. before ēdel-in-mē." lekā kun-in-ā. In am-rā mīat' kāmī-ā lekā Niho birid-kan-të thy one servant-of like appoint-me-thou." Then arisen-having not-am. Oro sanin-rē doho-len-ā, himī-kan-tē hinī-ā sene-yan-ā. adē hunī āpun And distance-at near went. was, this-in. father he āpun hunī ñel-lid-i-ā, hed anāu-ked-tē ñir-ked-tē rōd-e-ā oro chohnā-lid-i-ā. father him saw-him, and pitied-having run-having embraced-him and kissed-him.

āpun-in, sirmā-rē hed $am-\bar{a}$ maran-rē 'oe dukumā-lā(k'), hopon 60 father-my, heaven-in andthee-of said, Then son kun-in-ā.' maran-tē am-ā hopon-in dukumāy-ā lekā Paë pāp-ked-ā-in, oro not-am. fitButand future-in thyshall-say hinī-ā kāmī-kū dukumā-lā(k'), 'sanam-etē bēs gendrā(k') urun-ē-pē āpun all-from said, goodrobe bring-you servants father jadaur-i-ē-pē, hen-tē muni-ā tī-rē mudam oro kātā-rē jutā oro munī hand-on ring andfoot-on clothe-him-you, also his himOro jil-vanā bachrū ged-ē-pē, hed abū jom-ked-tē sārī-o(k')-ā-bū, jutā-y-ē-pē. calf kill-it-you, and we eaten-having feast-will-we, shoe-him-you. And fatted jīvid-len-ā; goj-doho-len-ā, nahā hopon-in nik'i-ra(k')-a-tē, in-ā revived: son-my dead-had-been, nowmy this-of-from, rūar-yam-len-ā.' Hen-të hu-kû sārī-yan-ā. ad-doho-len-ā, oro feasted. lost-had-been, and again-found-was.' So they

Paĕ hini-ā baḍe-ae otē-rē doho-len-ā. Oro vej-vej-tē ora(k') aḍē And coming-in house towards approached-But his elder-one field-in was. kāmī-kū-tē mīat' sārī-kū susun-kū ayum-la(k')-ā. Hen-tē hinī munī-ā tē servants-from one heard. Therefore he hishaving musicians dancers sudhau-lid-i-ā, 'nihī chi-tan-ā?' Hinī dukumā-lā(k'), 'am-ā rāk'-ked-tē 'this what-is?' He ' thy asked-him, called-having man Hen-te am-ā āpun jil-vanā bachrū ged-lid-i-ā, nik'īvei-len-ā. boko-ē Therefore thy father fatted calf killed-it, thisyounger-brother-he come-has. ra(k')-a-tē, hunī napae-kan-tē vej-yam-lā(k').' Paë hini usad-yan-a oro ora(k') But he angry-became and house came-found.' safely reason-for, he muni-ā āpun udun-ked-tē Hen-tē bolo-yam-len-ā. bitar-re kā-e Therefore hisfather outside-having-come to-enter-wished. inside-in not-he hunī bhuriyau-lid-i-ā. Paē hunī āpun-in(sic.) rūar-dukumā-lā(k'), 'ñel-mē, nimin father-his replied, 'see, so-many him entreated-him. But he bagī-tē am-rā kāmī-lā(k'), ortē-rē amā dukmā kā-in birid-la(k')-ā. Numen-rē years-from thy service-doing, once thy word not-I lifted. kā-m ovāld-i-ā, niā men-tē, inā gatī-kū tūlē sārī-o(k'). am hurin merom hõ thou small goat even not-thou gavest, this saying, my friends with might-feast. Paë am-rā nik'i hopon lamī-kū tūlē am-ā jonom jom-ked-ā, hunī enan vej-len-ā, women with thy living devoured, heBut thy this-very son mi-an munī-tē jil-vanā bachrū ovāld-i-ā-m.' Paē hunī dukumā-lā(k'), 'an hopon-in, said, then him-for fatted gavest.' But he calfam sadāin in-ā adē doho-tan-am. Hed chitana(k') in-ra(k'), sanam am-ra(k') īdan-ā. allthine whatmine, art. Andthou always me-of with ni(k') am-ā bokonia-ra(k')-a-tē, sirin-nelenan, Paë abu sārī-nelenān hed But we should-feast and should-be-happy, this-reason-for, this-very thy youngergoj-doho-len-ā, oro rūar-jivid-len-ā; ad-doho-len-ā, oro rūar-yam-len-ā. brother-he dead-had-been, and again-alive-became; lost-had-been, and again-found-was.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Asurī.

SPECIMEN II.

(STATE JASHPUR.)

I.

Merhet' tihin ninduā ñam-la sen-nen-ā bērā. Buruk' pakhā went to-day morning Iron seek-to time. Mountain direction Merhet' sen-tehin-en-ā-in. kā-lē yām-la(k') orak' rūar-nen-ā-lē. Iron found gone-had-I. not-we house returned-we. giti(ch')-ken-ā-e. U-kē Boko-in biń hab-lid-i-y-ā-e. Rān-mubgād Younger-brother-my sleeping-was-he. Him snake bit-had-him-it. Drugs-roots itan-ō kāi itan-nen-ā. Āyub-berā-e lagāo-legā-lak' goch'-nen-ā-e. Dihi-rē applied-tried anything not took-place. Evening-time-he died-he. Village-in Sagro-kono dhēr hor-kū tehin-en-ā. ñel-lid-i-ā. Thānā-rē many men were. Allsaw-him. Police-station-in sen-nen-ā-lē. Dārogā hich'-nen-a-e āru goch' hor-kē to-give-information went-we. Dārogā came-he and deadman ñel-lid-i-ā-e. saw-him-he.

II.

hich'-tehin-en-ā-e. Holāte i'n huru ir-in sen-tehin-en-āin. Hũi-ho Yesierday Ι paddy to-cut-I gone-had-I. He-also come-had-he. Hũi tik'-rē hāpā tāhin-en-ā. ārē durup'-tehin-en-ā-in. Nel-lid-iñ-ā-e Ul-dubā stick His hand-in was. Mango-tree side sitting-was. Saw-me-he hech'-gathā-lak', 'itanā huru-kē ik'r-id-ā-m?' In kahādē-la(k'), inʻin huru came-said, 'why rice cuttest?' my answered, 'my Thengā-tē humak'-lid-iñ-ā-e. hēkē.' Sāmān-rē chot-lagao-len-a. Bidig maem is.' Stick-with struck-me-he. Forehead-on struck. Much blood Nãa ñur-nen-ā. gendrak'-kē tol-le-in. Jē ghari gogoch'-rē bār-hor Thiscame-out. clothtied-I. What timestruck-when two-men tehin-en-ā-kū(sic.). Mit'-hor tehin-en-ā-e mit'-hor kotwar tehin-en-a-e. gonjhu, were-present-they. One-man was-hehead-man, one-man kotwal was-he. In gitich'-tehin-en-ā. In-kē kotwar dak' em-la(k')-e. saltassē-rē orak' Kati lying-was. Me-to kotwal water A-little composed-when house gave. hich'-nen-ā-in. came-I.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

STATEMENT OF TWO WITNESSES.

I.

To day I went out in the morning to find iron. I went towards the mountain but did not find any, and so we came home. My brother was then sleeping. A snake had bitten him. I applied many drugs and roots, but in vain, and in the evening he died. There were many men in the village, and they all went and saw him. We went to the police station and gave information, and the Sub-Inspector came and saw the corpse.

II

Yesterday I went to cut rice, and he came there likewise, with a stick in his hand. I was sitting under a mango tree. He saw me and said, 'why are you cutting my rice?' I said that it was my rice, and then he struck me with his stick on the forehead. Much blood came out, and I tied my cloth round my head. At the time he struck me, two persons were present, the Gonjhu and the Kotwāl. I fell down, and the Kotwāl gave me water. After having become somewhat restored I went home.

It has already been remarked that some corrupt specimens of the so-called Brijiā dialect have been forwarded from Palamau. I am not able to make anything out of them, and I therefore simply reproduce the beginning of the first of them, a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son.

Very little can be said regarding the inflexion of nouns and pronouns. There is apparently a locative suffix en; thus, $d\bar{\imath}h\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}a$ -en(sic.), in the country; $luch\bar{a}$ -en, in riotousness.

 $I\bar{a}n$ is translated 'my', 'thy', and 'his'. For 'his' we also find $\bar{a}j$. $I\bar{a}n$ therefore probably means sometimes $in\bar{a}$, my, and sometimes ach'- \bar{a} , his.

The conjugation of verbs is, if we can trust the specimens, very confused. We find $sen-\bar{a}$, I will go, and, he went; $kath\bar{a}-l\bar{a}-e$, he said, and, I shall say. There are regular forms such as $uddau-ket-\bar{a}$, i.e. $udau-ket'-\bar{a}$, squandered; $h\bar{a}ti-uad-i-\bar{a}$, i.e. $h\bar{a}ti-uad-i-\bar{a}$, he divided to him, side by side with forms such as $jaw\bar{a}r-\bar{o}$, he collected; $jived-\bar{o}-\bar{a}$, he revived; $h\bar{a}r-\bar{o}-\bar{a}$, I broke. Conjunctive participles end in $\bar{o}m\bar{\imath}$; thus, $birid\bar{o}m\bar{\imath}$, having arisen, and so forth.

It would, however, only be waste of time and paper to try to reconstruct the grammar of the specimens. If they really represent the dialect of anyone, it must be that of such Brijias as have forgotten their own language.

[No. 27.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

ASURĪ (BRIJIĀ) DIALECT.

(DISTRICT PALAMAU.)

Okoe hor bāriā sengoch' Hunī-ēdānī īdan-ā. hundie āpu-in man twosons were. Them-from-among younger father-his One īthān hinibāņţ hoeā-ō e oe baba, hurū-ōt jē betē kathā-lā-ē, īā dān.' 'O father, rice-field which sharemythatmay-be me give.' hurū hāţi-wad-i-â. Purē din Tabē hunī hunī-ēn ī-ān rekānā hoew-ā him-to his property divided-to-him. Many days not (sic.) passed hundiē sengoch' chitānā jawar-ō sangia seno-an-a, iwējōā puré hundēā allcollected very distantwent, and son there younger din bītā-lek ī-ān hurū uddāō. Sēnōēn hundēā ēk-dūe uddāō-ket-ā luchhäen spent his property wasted. When there allriotously wasted-had dīhīrīā-en hāpor hōtā-et-ā. iwējōā hunī range-than-a, iwejoa tabē hunā then that country-in heavy famine-arose andhepoor-became, and senō-en-ā hunā dihin īdān-i-ã miānāe hoe-an-ā, sērāng hunī ī-ān hunī that country inhabitants one-to he wentlived, whohim his khātān sūkarī kul-tad-i-ā bidā. swinesent-him sent. field

Speakers of Kherwārī have also been returned from the Raigarh State. According to local estimates there were 2,000 speakers of Muṇḍārī, and 4,000 whose dialect was returned as Māñjhī, in the State. At the last Census 20 speakers of Brijiā and 22 speakers of Māñjhī were returned instead. It is therefore probable that the Muṇḍārī originally reported is in reality Brijiā, and that that dialect as well as the so-called Māńjhī are now practically extinct. The specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey point to the same conclusion. They are extremely corrupt and mixed with Aryan forms and words.

The so-called Mānjhī has hitherto been classed as Santālī. Mānjhī is, however, not a dialect at all, but a title which the Santāls as well as the Asurs, Korwās, and other tribes are fond of applying to themselves. One specimen of the so-called Mānjhī, a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, has been forwarded from Raigarh. It is not written in Santālī, but in a form of speech which is much more closely related to Muṇḍārī. It represents the same dialect as a list of Standard Words and Phrases in the so-called Kol or Muṇḍārī, forwarded from the same place. We are therefore justified in considering both as the same form of speech.

It is extremely difficult to classify the dialect in question. It is not pure Mundārī, but more closely related to dialects such as Tūrī, Asurī, and Korwā. Forms such as hundi-ker-si, having collected; $del-ker-\bar{a}$, left, show the same change of the t' in the suffix ket' as Korwā. The negative particle, on the other hand, is $k\bar{a}$ as in Asurī. Who? is koi, which corresponds to Asurī okoe, and so forth. It seems therefore to be most correct to class the dialect as a form of speech between Asurī and Korwa. The figures have been shown under Asurī.

It would be waste of time and paper to go further into detail. It will be sufficient to print the first few lines of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in order to give an idea of this very corrupt and mixed form of a dying language. I give the text almost as I have received it, with only a very few corrections.

[No. 27.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHERWARĪ.

So-called Manjhi Dialect.

(STATE RAIGARH.)

Min ēr-ā barayā lihin-king tae-ken-a-king. Kōrā lihintātā-go One man-of twosons-they-two were-they-two. Small (sic.) son father-to kāji-ki-ā-ē, ٠ē būā. dē kauri-kū paisā-kū hātin-talang.' Ēnā tātā father, give said-he, ٠о cowries picedivide-our-two.' Thenfather kauri-kū paisā-kū hātin-anjā. huding tikin Tayom-tē kōrā lihin iammā cowries divided. pice. **Afterwards** fewdayssmallsonallhuṇḍi-kēr-si ātū tōrāing. Ēnā phuhar kām-rē kauri-paisā-kū āru säing collected-having again distant village went. Then evildoing-in coury-pice-them at'-kē. rāj-rē Jēb ach'ā hāth-rē paisā anker-ā, ēnā khūb dukāl lost. Whenhishand-in money not-remained, that country-in bigfamine Ini mit'-gi-mit'-gi kisān ghar-rē kamiā thai-yan. parā-yan-ā. Ini kisān farmer's house-in labourer stayed. HeThatfell. one-one farmer ūwāya(sic.) barahā charāya-kē toryā-kūl-tā-i-yā. Hērē jēprā(sic.) barahā. Huskshim pigs feeding-for away-sent-him. ateswine. jomē-dēl-ker-ā, jahã-kahã jojom-nān hoēl. Ini Barahā lihin mankā Heeating-left, childeat-to mind was. in-any-way not yam-ji-ā-ē. gets-he.

KORWĀ.

The Korwā dialect is closely related to Asurī, and is spoken by about 20,000 individuals.

The word for 'man' is hor, i.e., $h\bar{\alpha}r$, as in Santālī. The name Korwā does not therefore appear to have anything to do with that word, which in the west has the form $k\bar{\rho}r$. It is perhaps connected with names such as $Kh\bar{e}rw\bar{\alpha}r$. We do not, however, know anything about the original meaning of either of those words.

The Korwās use the same honorific title to denote themselves as the Santāls, viz., Māñjhī.

The Korwās are sometimes also called $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}-k\bar{u}$, young men, from $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, a boy. The use of this denomination has given rise to much confusion. In the first place the Korwās have been confounded with the Kūrkūs, the most important Muṇḍā tribe of the Central Provinces. Moreover, $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}-k\bar{u}$ is also the plural of $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, another form of $k\bar{o}d\bar{a}$, a digger. Now the Kōdās are a different tribe, but Korwās and Kōdās are constantly confounded, and it is not always possible to say if the speakers returned from the districts in reality speak Korwā or are Kōdās. The Kōdās have been separately dealt with above. See pp. 107 and ff.

The Korwās are found in various parts of Chota Nagpur, especially in Palamau,

Jashpur, and Sarguja. They also occupy a tract of country in Mirzapur, to the south of the river Son, and along the Sarguja frontier. The Mirzapur Korwās assert that they have come from Sarguja within the last two or three generations. Some Korwās are also found in Hazaribagh. The number of speakers in that district was originally estimated at 2,950. The local authorities have, however, since then reported that there are no speakers of Korwā in Hazaribagh.

Korwā was also returned from Burdwan and Manbhum. At the last Census, of 1901, the corresponding figures have been shown under Kōdā. In the case of Manbhum this agrees with information kindly supplied by the Rev. A. Campbell, who further remarks that the Kōdās of Manbhum speak Muṇḍārī. I have therefore given the figures for both districts under Kōdā. It is probable that the 395 speakers of Korwā who were returned from the Sonthal Parganas at the last Census, of 1901, in reality speak Santālī. The principal home of the Korwā tribe is, accordingly, Palamau and the tributary States of Jashpur and Sarguja. In Palamau, they are almost exclusively found in the south, on the Sarguja frontier, and in Jashpur most of them reside in the table land of Khuria.

The hill Korwās of Sarguja believe that they are descended from a scare-crow set up to frighten wild animals by the first men who raised crops in the State. The same tradition is also current among the Asurs. The Korwās claim to be the original inhabitants of the country they occupy.¹ Mr. Risley remarks that this their claim 'is in some measure borne out by the fact that the priests who propitiate the local spirits are always selected from this tribe.' Mr. Driver, on the other hand, states that they have traditions about the Mahadeo Hills.

According to the latter authority, 'they are in various states of civilisation, from the Birhor-Koroa of the jungles to the cultivator on the plains who prefers to call himself a "Kisān."

'In Palamau they call themselves Korea-Mundas rather than Koroas, and in Sirguja and Jashpur they like to be called Paharias, the name Korea being looked upon as a term of reproach . . . The Koroas are divided into several sub-tribes, the Paharia or Bor-koroas, the Birinjia-koroas, the Birhor-koroas, the Koraku-koroas, and the Korea-Mundas. All live amongst the hills and jungles and speak dialects of the Kolarian language. The Dand-koroas or Dih-koroas and the Agaria-koroas live on the low lands, and speak only a dialect of Hindi.'

The so-called Kōrā-kū Korwās are sometimes also called Kōr-kūs. Two hundred and seventy-five speakers of Kōr-kū have been returned from Sarguja. They will be included in the Korwā figures from the State.

According to Mr. Crooke, the various sub-tribes of the Korwās do not appear to exist in Mirzapur. The Korwās of that district state that there are only two sub-tribes, viz., Korwā and Kōrā-kū.

The language of the Korwās is not the same in all places. Many Korwās now use a form of speech which is very closely related to Mundārī and Santālī. They are apparently gradually abandoning their old speech. Specimens of that more refined form of the language will be given below on pp. 158 and ff.

The most idiomatic Korwā is spoken in Jashpur and Sarguja, in the south of Palamau, and in Mirzapur. In the latter district the dialect is known under the name of Korwārī. The Erngā sub-tribe of the Jashpur State use a slightly different dialect which is known as Erngā or Singlī.

According to local estimates and the returns of the Census of 1891, Korwā was Number of speakers. spoken as a home tongue in the following districts:—

Ber	igal Presid	lency	y—												
	Ranchi														5,016
	Palamau			•		•	•								2,000
	Jashpur	•													5,000
2	Sarguja	•		• .	•										6,536
	Udaipur		•	•	•				•						358
v				٠,											
									Tota	al Be	ngal P	reside	ency		18,910
Un	ited Provi	nces	_											•	
	Mirzapur	ť		• ,,		•	•	•	•		•				33
											GRAI	ND To	TAL		18,943

At the Census of 1891 Korwā was further returned from Jalpaiguri and from Assam, where it was spoken by non-resident immigrants from Chota Nagpur. The details were as follows:—

•	•	•	•	•	•	•						603
•	. •	•	•	•	•		•		4.			181
											-	
								*0	To	TAL		784
	;	: :								• • • • • • • • •		ID

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	The estima).	By addi	ng all
these	figures we	arriv	e at t	he	fol	lowir	ng est	ima	ted	total	for	Korv	vā :-	_			
	Korwā spol	ken at	home	•					•	•						18,943	
	Korwā spo	ken ab	road .						•	•		•	•			784	
•	Erngā .	•	•.	•				•	•		•		•	•	. •	500	
15													Тот	AL		20,227	

At the last Census of 1901 Korwā was returned from the same districts, and also from the 24-Parganas, Dinajpur, and the Sonthal Parganas. The figures returned from the two former districts were small and the speakers are probably non-resident immigrants from Chota Nagpur. From the Sonthal Parganas 395 speakers were returned. There are no corresponding returns in the caste table, and it is therefore probable that the language figures are due to some misunderstanding. The number of speakers of Korwā returned at the last Census were then as follows:—

Ben	gal Presidency	_	,										
	24-Parganas										49		1.5
	Dinajpur										14		
	Jalpaiguri										83		
	Sonthal Parg	anas									395		
	Ranchi .										941		100
	Palamau										6,647		
	Orissa Tributa	ary S	tates								7		
	Chota Nagpur			States		•					7,746		
													9
							Tota	l Beng	gal Pre	side	ency	. 1	5,882
Uni	ited Provinces-	-											
	Mirzapur		•.								308		
Ass	am						•		• .	•	79		., .
					112					T	OTAL	. 1	6,269
Ern	gā dialect												173
	0											_	
						- 1		-	GRAN	рΤ	OTAL	. 1	6,442
ODT												_	

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Chooke, W.,—A Vocabulary of the Korwa Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxi, Part i, 1892, pp. 125 and ff.

Driver, W. H. P., — The Korkus. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxi, Part i, 1892, pp. 128 and ff. Contains a short Korwā Vocabulary.

It has already been remarked that some Korwās use a form of speech which is closely related to Mundārī and Santālī. That form of the dialect will be dealt with later on; see pp. 157 and ff. I shall now turn to the most characteristic form of Korwā, which is spoken in Jashpur and Sarguja, the south of Palamau, and in Mirzapur.

The specimens printed below are far from being satisfactory. They are, however, the only foundation for the remarks on Korwā grammar which follow.

Pronunciation.—The pronunciation is in several particulars the same as in Asuri. Thus the initial palatal \tilde{n} is retained, or else changed to y. Compare $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}m$ and $y\tilde{a}m$, get; $\tilde{n}ir$,

run. A v sometimes corresponds to an h in Santālī and Muṇdārī; thus, vich'-ken- \bar{a} , he came; $v\bar{a}tu$, village. The semi-consonants have only been marked in the Jashpur specimens, and even there in a very inconsistent manner. I have written them in the usual way when there were indications to show their existence. I have not, however, ventured to aim at consistency with regard to the marking of them or to the spelling generally.

'Give him' is ow-ai-me, as in Asurī. Compare also īdān-ā, is, etc.

Note also the insertion of a w in forms such as $kat\bar{a}$ -wad-i- \bar{a} , he said to him; the use of the infix n in words such as anamak, thy; kanalom, last year, etc.; and the common tendency to change the semi-consonant t in verbal forms to d, r and r. Compare $kas\bar{u}r$ -ted- \bar{a} -ing, I sinned (Jashpur); yam-ker- \bar{a} , got (Palamau); $kat\bar{a}$ -ter- \bar{a} , said (Palamau). Compare the remarks under the head of Hō, on p. 118 above.

Verbal tenses in the Jashpur specimens frequently end in \bar{o} ; thus, $\bar{a}yum$ -ad- \bar{o} , he heard; but $kat\bar{a}$ -wad- \bar{a} , he said; $kat\bar{a}$ -ter- \bar{a} - $y\bar{o}$, he said. It is impossible to decide whether this \bar{o} is a suffixed particle or represents a change of \bar{a} or e to \bar{o} .

There are several other peculiarities and inconsistencies in the spelling. They cannot, however, be classed according to definite rules, and I shall therefore only draw attention to the fact. The details will be ascertained from the specimens,

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns is, mainly speaking, regular. Forms such as lesan din- \bar{o} , in few days, in the Jashpur specimen, apparently contain the same \bar{o} as the verbal forms just mentioned. Postpositions such as $k\bar{a}$ (Jashpur), $ki\tilde{a}$ (Palamau), to; sudh \bar{a} , to (Mirzapur and Palamau), are borrowed, and the dialect is, on the whole, no more pure. Note also the $t\bar{o}$ or $t\bar{u}$ in words such as $ap\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$, the father; hopon- $t\bar{u}$, the son. Compare Santālī $t\bar{a}t'$.

Numerals.—The numerals 'four' and following are borrowed. Instead of $p\tilde{e}$, three, we also find the Aryan tin in Jashpur.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns are apparently regular. Thus, $\bar{a}ing$ and ing, I; $al\bar{e}$, we (exclusive); $ab\bar{u}$, we (inclusive). Note forms such as ining, my; anamak, thine, and so on.

In the case of demonstrative pronouns we find the same forms beginning with m as in Asurī. Compare $h\tilde{a}e$, $m\tilde{a}e$ and $w\tilde{a}e$, he; man, that, and so forth.

In the Mirzapur list we find ya-wa- $n\bar{e}$, who? ya-r- $n\bar{e}$, whose? $y\bar{a}$ -tha- $r\bar{e}$, from whom? They look like Dravidian loan-words. An initial y does not appear to belong to the Munda languages. What? is chili or chila, compare Santālī chele.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is $id\bar{a}n$, past doho-tan, as in Asuri. In Palamau we-find forms such as $id\bar{a}n$ -mi- \bar{a} , thou art.

The indefinite future tense is regularly formed. Thus, jom-ā, he is eating; durup'-kok'-ā, he is sitting; charā-kok'-ā, he is standing; chalao-ā, I shall go.

The usual present tense is formed as in Mundārī. Thus, rijh-rang-jom-tan, they feast and eat. In Jashpur $t\bar{a}$ is commonly used instead of tan, and such forms often have the meaning of a future. Thus, gujuk'- $t\bar{a}$, I am dying; katae- $t\bar{a}$, I shall say to him. Compare Khariā. The suffix $t\bar{a}$ in Jashpur sometimes also has the meaning of past time; thus, doho- $t\bar{a}$, was; bol- $t\bar{a}$, entered.

KORWA. 151

The various stages of past time are denoted by means of the same suffixes as in Santālī and Muṇḍārī, though we cannot, of course, expect to find instances of all the various forms in use in those languages.

In the first place we have the simple past formed by adding the suffixes ed, ad, en $(y\bar{a}n)$, an. Thus, $sen-ed-\bar{a}$, went; $ow-ad-i-\bar{a}$, gave to him; $mesa-en-\bar{a}$, joined; $goch-y\bar{a}n-\bar{a}$, I am beaten; $kud-\bar{a}n-e$, he has come.

Such forms frequently have the meaning of a present; thus, goj-yan-ā, I die; im-yad-ā, he gives; chalāo-en-ā, goes.

The Mundārī suffix tet' occurs as ted, ted, ter, and ter. Thus, sab-ted-ā, I have seized; rangech'-tid-i-ā, it hungered him, he was hungry; sen-ter-ā, I have walked; rak'-ter-ā, he called. In Palamau we find forms such as yal-yam-te-ā, he caught sight of him. Compare the forms ending in tā in Jashpur mentioned above. Note also forms such as thurāo-tar-ā, collected (Jashpur). In Palamau we also find sen-ten-ā, he went, and so on.

The suffix ket', ken, etc., occurs in forms such as $by\bar{a}h-ked-e-\bar{a}$, he has married her; $\bar{i}d\bar{a}n-k\bar{i}-\bar{a}$, said; $yam-ker-\bar{a}$, got; $surt\bar{a}-ker-\bar{a}$, he came to his senses; $goch'-ken-\bar{a}$, he died; $vich'-ken-\bar{a}$, he has come, and so forth.

Forms such as $til\bar{a}$ -gad- \bar{a} , I have taken; $\tilde{n}am$ -gad- \bar{o} , he got, and so forth, apparently contain the suffix kat.

The remoter past is formed by adding the suffixes let', len, etc. Thus, $\tilde{n}il$ -li- \tilde{a} , i.e. $\tilde{n}il$ -lich'- \tilde{a} , he saw him; $chal\tilde{a}o$ -len- \tilde{a} , he went; goj-len- \tilde{a} , he had died, and so forth.

Note finally forms such as $\tilde{n}am$ -nen- \tilde{a} , he was found; $t\tilde{o}r\tilde{a}$ - $y\tilde{o}$, he went; mamak'- $y\tilde{o}$, he was cutting, and so forth.

The imperative is regular. Thus, ow-ai-mī, give him; hāṭing-wā-ing-mē, divide to me, etc. In Palamau and Mirzapur we find forms such as asuli-āṛā, keep me; jomi-āṛa, eat.

The noun of agency is formed as in Asurī. Thus, huding-āi, the younger.

The negative particle is $m\bar{e}$ in Jashpur, $min\bar{e}$ in Mirzapur, and $men\bar{e}$ or $n\bar{e}$ in Palamau. Compare Khariā. We also find alo in forms such as alo-i bol, he did not enter.

It will be seen that Korwā is closely related to Asurī, and there can be no doubt regarding its classification as a form of Kherwārī. For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son received from Jashpur; the second is a popular tale from Palamau; and the third is the statement of an accused person in the Korwā or Korwārī of Mirzapur. All the specimens are rather corrupt. They are, however, quite sufficient to allow us to judge as to the general character of the dialect. A list of Standard Words and Phrases from Mirzapur will be found below on pp. 241 and ff.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Korwā.

SPECIMEN I.

(JASHPUR STATE.)

Mi(t') hor-rikinak' hor-kin doho-tā. Huding-ai beta-t apā-t One man-of men-they-two twowere. Small-the son-his father-his sangē katā-ter-ā, 'e bābā, dēĩ. itādō hāting-wā-ing-mē.' Läich'-ku said.O father, please, this-all divide-to-me-thou.' To-the-sons (sic.) hāting-ad-ō apā-tō. Lesan din-õ hudingāi-yō jamak' thurāo-tar-ā aur divided-to-them father-the. Few days-in small-the-also all gatheredand. lankā-e iabar sen-ed-ā aur jamak' hāṭing-chābā-go(t')-ted-ā. Jamak' greatdistance-he went to-distribute-finished-quickly. and allchābā-o(k')-te hānā rāij-ō akāl-en-ō, rangech'-tid-i-y-ā. Hãe hānā barā finished-being-on that country-in heavy famine-arose, it-hungered-him. He that rāij-ra(k') mi(t')-hor hor sange mesā-en-ā. Tab hãe hãe-yā katā-ter-ā-yō, country-of one-man joined-was. manwithThen he him-to said-he, 'da-mē, sukrī-kū sarāo-kū-mē loyong-hor.' Tab sukrī-kū jom-kē-ā hānā hērē. swine feed-them-thou field-ward.' swineThenateñam-kū-rē-do hae jom-kē-ā. Man mē-i ñām-gaḍ-ō. Nihū hãe surtā-kēṛ-ā, getting-them-if he eaten-would-have. That not-he got. Then he sense-became, nak'ak' urī-kā-e katā-yā, 'āing bābā-ra(k')-ku jom-tā harwāhā-kū nak'ak' lakan: ¿ thiswise-he said, 'my father-of-they ateservants thismuch: ing-do rangā-ing guju(k')-tā. Ing rim-u(k')-tā-ing, bābā-kā-ing I-on-the-other-hand hungering-I die. I shall-arise-I, sen-tā, āru hāe-kā-ing "Bhagwan aikē-rē kasūr-ted-ā-ing, am-kā katā-e-tā. go-shall, and him-to-Isay-to-him-shall, " God near sinned-I, thee-to hõ. Am betā ab-ing nō-hōe. Ing-do-ho kowā harwāhā rakhāo-ing."" Hãe. also. Thy son now-Inot-am. Me-also someservant keep-me." ' Herim-len-khan apā-tākā torā-yō. Hãe jabar lankā-te hãe ñil-li-ā, apāt arisen-having father-near went. His father very far him saw-him, and katā-ter-ā-e, 'ing betā wai(ch')-ki-ā, mahre-ma.' Ñir-tem-to hae-rā hoto-re sābārā 'my son has-come, lo.' Runninghisneck-on embraced hōen-ō āru taem-te-do ãiyok'-ed-i-ā. Aru apā-tō betā-tāe katā-wād-ā, 'ing became and afterwards kissed-him. And father-the son-his said-to. I

Bhagwan ora(k')-re-ing kasūr-len-ā-ing, āru am met'-te. Āru ab-do am betā-ing sinner-was-I, and thy sight-in. And now thy house-in-I apā-t katā-ter-ā, 'nāpāe nāpāe sonhēpē udung-god-ō nō-hōe.' Tab harwāhā-kū Then servants father-his said, 'good good clothes mai tik'-re mudam tusing-god-o aru kat-re-m jutā tusing-god-ō. Dē his hand-on ring put-on and foot-on-thou shoe put. Come we jom-ā-bū, āru nāpāe karī-bū. Dohonā-do-ing betā goch'-ān-āi, khān-ō eat-shall-we, and well shall-make-we. Because-my sondied-had-he, jiāo-yān; āru kere-yān-ō, khān-ō ñām-nen-ā.' Ma-kuā man-kū rījh-rang-jom-tan. revived; and lost-was, now found-is.' Then they feasting-eating-are.

Hān-melā hae-ra(k') marang betā loyong-rē dohon-ā. Hān-melā ai ora(k')-rē That-time field-in bigson was. That-time he house-to wai(ch')-ed-ā, khān-ō madar-wīrī ayum-ad-o. Āru harwāha-kū mit' then drum-dancing came, heard.And servants(-of) one rak'-ter-ā āru homor-ted-i-y-ā, 'nai kareyā-tāi-yō?' Hae kata-ter-a, 'am 'this what-is-being-done?' calledasked-him, He· thy said, wai(ch')-ki-ā, āru nāpāe nāpāe kud-ān-e, hānā-orī am apā-t younger-brother come-has, andwellwell is-come, therefore thy father-his iom-ā.' Tab hãe ukik'-ān-ō bol-tā. āru ora(k')-rē mē Tab hãe-y-a(k') eats.' Then he angry-became and house-in not entered. Then uduń-en-ā āru tayom-te sudhāri-āi-y-ō. Betā-tō apā-t apā-tē kata-wad-a. father-his out-came and afterwards entreated-him. Son-the father-to 'nāmin basar-ing am-rā-ing kām-ter-ā; kōnō din dēkhā am hukum mē-ing tarāo-'so-many years-I thy-I service-did; any day see thy order not-I brokenagad-ā. Hānā-rē-hỗ mi(t')-gōt pathrū hon mē-m hāting-ad-i(n)-yā, nē have. That-in-even one-piece goat young not-thou gavest-to-me, that friends sangē ko-āndo-ing jom-ki-y-ā. Nak'i betā-am wai(ch')-ed ki am bhōj-nop-ed-ā; feasting-Ieat-might. This son-thy camethat thou feasted-drank; betā dēkhā kasbin-kū jom-chāb-ed-ā.' am am jīnā Tab hãe hãevã harlots feed-finished.' thythyliving Thensee'e betā, am-gā sab-din ining sangē dohon-tā, āru ing-ra(k')-do ān katā-wad-ā, said. O son, thou all-days mewithart. and mine goch'-ān-ā-i. am-ra(k'). Alē holē man-ted-ā, dohonā-dō am wāg Weentertained, because thy younger-brother khān-ō jiyāo-yān; āru kere-yān-ō, khān-ō ñām-nen-ā.' lived; and lost-was, andfound-was.

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Medica trajeca jako erikara

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRÍ.

KORWA.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT PALAMAU.)

A POPULAR TALE.

0 bhāi, chili-n kahne-ā. Tisin ivã ādījā bora(k') in bor-ā brother, what-I shall-say. To-day such false fear Ι thatjekrō bāyā Chīli-ken-ā, mēnī tebhō-ā. kē hôlā tikin-in what-of description What-happened, notcan. thatyesterdaynoon-I buru dubich'-dubich' bāzār sen-ter-ā. Buru-ting kül hedi-gati mountain towards bazar Mountain-on tiger went. very-loudly In bonum hor-kū doho-tan-ā, mēnē bora(k') hāp'-(a)d-i(n)-ā. ādūmi-ān-ā. Paran roared. Wemanymen were, not fear caught-me. hen hör-te in gēdēj màmā-in gão tikin mit'-hör sen-ten-ä. Jakhan to-day that way-in I own (?) uncle-my village noon one-man When dubich' nāī ādī sen-ten-ā chanak bonum khar-barāo-tirā birū mountain towards river bank went suddenlyvery loud-noise forest side-on sa-rē ājom-ter-ā. In-do nayan samjhāō-gad-ā kē kūl vech'-ten-ā, aur river side-on heard. I thusthought that tiger come-has, in hap'-ter-ā. Tij-in tarvār doho-tan-ā, $\min_{\widetilde{e}}$ ausar doho-jan-ā kē caught. Hand-my swordwas; notopportunity was-for-me bökhär-re urun-gad-ā. chhatpatāo-en-ā, boro(k')-ken-ā; kāth niar in Jing scabbard-from took-out. Heart-my throbbed. feared; wood like I charā-kin, kūl bēgâr yal-tir-ā boke-keri-yan. Jakhan chököi dērī-ā $i\dot{n}$ tiger without seeing bewildered-became. When little time-passed I henā senda yāl-wād-ē-yā, takhan in yāl-tir-ā, mit'-tān haram Sonthal hākū-kū that side looked, then Ι saw. oneold $Sant\bar{a}l$ yārī-yānā sötī da(k') tanayā doho-tan, wahi buru-teng bārilo-jora-yān-ā. to-kill river waterdamming was, which hill-top-from falling-was. Ti-kivarā jē dirī ōta-rē adādīj-er-ā, sē-tī dirī bīs hāth bārī which stones below was-throwing, those stones **Therefrom** twenty cubits from harharão ōt-rē agrū-len-ā. Jakhan inā yal-ter-ā, takhan khātir-ten-ā; sounding ground-on falling-had-been. When this then was-comforted: saw, deyā phūr-sāt-len-ā, in ining neyā ṭebhok' dahayārayā ining sāhas kaī landā-yān-ā. again became-active, I myself this matter remembering my courage at laughed.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

What shall I say, brother? To-day I have had such a shock from false fear that I cannot describe it. What happened is this.

Yesterday I went to the bazaar in the direction of the mountain, and heard the roar of a tiger from the mountain. We were many men together, and so I did not fear. But to-day at noon, I went alone by the same road to my uncle's village. When I approached the river near the mountain, I heard a very loud noise from the same direction. I thought that the tiger had come to catch me. I had a sword in my hand, but had no time to draw it from the scabbard. My heart began to beat violently, and I was so terrified that I stood like a stock and became quite senseless, though I did not see the tiger. After some time I looked in that direction, and I saw an old Santāl who was damming up the water of the river that came from the top of the mountain, to catch fish. He was therefore throwing stones down, and they were falling with a loud sound at a distance of twenty cubits. I was then comforted and came to myself, and laughed at my own courage.

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MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

KORWĀ.

SPECIMEN III.

(DISTRICT MIRZAPUR.)

STATEMENT OF AN ACCUSED PERSON.

Rupiya Udbegi minē tilā-gad-ā. Chili-laga tila-tila? Naa mamla polis Rupees Udbegi not took. What-for should-take? This matter police jachao-kid-a. Ne aditkahne-re. Ι'n hor mari nokar-yan kam judged. These men falsetale-in. I oldservant-being worknees-do achchha banao-kin-a. Pe-khe rupiya Ι'n pao-en-a. this-year (i.e. always) well did. Three-times money got. I bidik chor-ko sab-ted-a. In-on-do ita-g-i-do aloi rakhwar. Kanalom many thieves seized. Me-like other not watchman. Last-yeardewan bari-tān rupiya ow-ad-i-a. Nees-do heni sudha rupiya assi-y-a. Dewan two rupees gave-to-him. This-year himto rupees asked. Hen hor rupiya-tin minē im-yad-a, nena khatir nalis-kid-a. Na-an Thisman rupees-my will-give, not thissake-for This complained. ori-te kini hor mini nalis-gad-i-ya. $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{n}$ dih-ren-ku hor homorway-in complaint-made. any man not This place-of-they men mayku-an. En dih-ren-ku hor pe-tān hor na-an vi(ch')-kin-a, \mathbf{or} be-asked. This place-of-they men three come-have, men hereandmiyat' ghari-re miyat' hor vech'-a. Nehor am sudha chikan one moment-in one man will-come. This man thee tothe-fact tibu-a. tell-can.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

I have not taken Udbegi's money. The matter has been tried by the police, and these men bear false witness. I am an old servant and always did my work well. I have got rewarded three times. I have seized many thieves, and there is no village watchman like me. Last year I lent the Dewan two rupees, and this year I asked him for them. He, however, would not pay, and therefore he filed this complaint. Such a complaint has never before been made. My fellow-villagers may be asked. Three of them are present here, and one more will be here in a moment. He will be able to tell you the truth.

KORWĀ. 157

It has already been mentioned that some Korwas speak a dialect which is much more closely related to Mundari and Santali than is the case with the specimens printed above. Two versions of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in this more refined Korwā will be printed below. The first has been prepared by the Rev. J. DeSmet, and represents the dialect as spoken in Sarguja and Jashpur; the second was taken down in Hazaribagh by Messrs. Shaw and Bajray, and is stated to have been written in the so-called Kōrākū tebok', i.e., the language of the Kōrākū. The word tebok' is commonly used in the dialect of the so-called Tisiās, a sub-tribe of the Erngā Korwās. See below. There are now no speakers of Korwā in Hazaribagh. I have, however, printed the specimen because it is a very good one. The semi-consonants are marked with much more consistency than in the specimen prepared by Mr. DeSmet where I have restored them from Mundārī and Santālī. Thus I have written tuluch' instead of his tulu'; amak'ak' instead of his amaa', thine, and so on.

Though the two specimens in question do not partake of all the peculiarities of the other Korwā specimens there can be no doubt that they represent a closely connected form of speech. Thus we find anamak', thine; hopon-to, the son; idan-a, is; hatin-wad-kin-a-e, he divided to them; bana-en-a, they do; hudin-aei(ch'), the younger, and so on. Mr. DeSmet states that 'you two' is aban as in Asuri. In his specimen we find forms such as mak'-awa-kad-ko-a, he caused them to kill. We have no instances of a causative verb in the other specimens.

According to Mr. DeSmet the negative particles are ban and ka. The Hazaribagh specimen, on the other hand, has menei, men, as in the other Korwā specimens.

For further details the specimens themselves should be consulted.

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MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

Korwā.

SPECIMEN IV.

(Rev. J. M. DeSmet, S.J., 1898.)

(STATE SARGUJA.)

Hurin-i(ch') hopon-te Mit' hor-ren bar hopon-kin idan-kin-ā. apa-t-e One man-of two Small-the sons were-they-two. son-the father-his-he met-ad-e-a, aba, iñ ñam-e-a khurji hațin-ain-me.' Apa-t-do hatinsaid-to-him, father, I shall-get property divide-to-me.' Father-his dividedwad-kin-a-e. din-re hurin-i(ch') hopon-te sanama(k') Hurin jawar-ked-te to-them-two-he. Fewdays-in small-the son-the allcollected-having sanin desom-e sen-yen-a. Han-re ach'-a(k') khurji etkan kami-re chaba-parchidistant country-he went. There property bad deeds-in finished-comhis Ar sanama(k')-e chaba-ke-ate hana disum maran ranga-kan-a, pletely-he. And . all finished-having that country much famine-stricken-was, ar range(ch')-ed-e-a. Ar-e chalao-en-a ar hana disum-ren mit' hor thao-re-e and it-hungered-him. And-he and that country-of one man place-in-he went doho-ken-a. Huni-do ach'-a(k') gupi-e kul-ked-e-a. Ar sukri-ko ot-re sukri stayed. Hefield-in swine to-feed-he sent-him. And hisswinejom-ad-e-a(k') lupu-te lach' bi-o(k')-a-e ñam-la(k')-e, ar okoe-ho ban-ko husks-with belly shall-be-filled-he wished, and anyone not-they em-ad-e-a. Ar-e uru-keate-e men-ked-a, 'apu-in-a(k') ora(k)'-re timin gave-to-him. And-he reflected-having-he said, 'father-my-of house-in how-many dasi-ko-a(k') pura lad men-a, iñ-do në-re range(ch)'-tiñ goch'-tan-a. Birid-ko(k')servants-of much bread is, I here hunger-with-I dying-am. Arise-shalla-iñ thao-in sen-o(k')-a ar, "e baba," met-ai-a-iñ, \boldsymbol{I} father-my place-I go-shall and, "O father," say-to-him-shall-I, "heavenrea(k') ar am thao-re etka-ked-a-iñ; taiom-te-do am-reni(ch') hopon leka and thy presence-in sinned-I; henceforth thee-of like iñ-do na-lage. Am-reni(ch') lekan-te doho-ka-iñ-me."' dasi Ar-e I-indeed not-at-all. Thee-of servant like keep-me-thou." And-he birid-yan-a ar ana-t-e sen-ñam-ked-e-a-e. Oro pura sanin-re and father-his-he went-found-him-he. And great distance-at father-the-he ñel-ñam-ked-e-a, oro daia-wad-e-a, oro ñir-daram-ked-e-a-e oro hambud-ked-e-a-e, oro see-got-him, and pitied-him, and ran-met-him-he and embraced-him-he, and cho(k)'-cho(k)'-ked-e-a-e. Hopon-te kora-do, 'e baba,' met-ad-e-a-e, 'sirima-rea(k') repeatedly-kissed-him-he. Child-the boy, 'O father,' said-to-him-he, 'heaven-of

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thao-re etka-ked-a-iñ; taiom-te-do am-reni(ch') hopon leka iñ-do na-lage.' and thy presence-in sinned-I; henceforth thee-of son like I not-at-all.' Apa-te-do ach'-ren dasi-ko-e met-ad-ako-a, 'sob-ate bugi lija(k') agu-tab-pe, servants-he said-to-them, 'all-from good cloth bring-quickly-ye, Father-the his oro lija(k')-e-pe; oro ti-re mudam, oro kata-re juta tusin-ai-pe. and clothe-him-ye; and hand-on ring, and foot-on shoe put-on-him-ye, and hormo-akad-e bachru agu-e-pe, ma(k)'-goj-e-pe; jom-ňu-ka-te-bun bring-it-ye, cut-dead-it-ye; eaten-drunk-having-we dance-shall. fattened hopon-iñ kora goch'-len-a-e, oro Ni jivid-ruar-kan-a-e; ad-len-a-e, Thischild-my died-had-he, and alive-returned-has-he; lost-was-he, boy ňam-ruar-kan-a-e.' Ar-ko jom-ñu-susun-ked-a. found-again-has-been-he.' And-they ate-drank-danced.

Maran-ni(ch') kora hopon-do ot-re-e dohon-kan-a. Oro-e ruar-kan-a ora(k)' Great-the boy child field-in-he And-he returned house was. japā(k')-re hiju(k')-len-a-e, oro sereń-kan susun-kan-ko-a(k') sari-e anum-ked-a. came-he, and singing dancing-men-of sound-he heard. Huni-do mit' dasi-e ra(k)'-ked-e-a oro, 'chet'-ko bana-en-a?' men-te Heone servant-he called-him and, 'what-they do? saying Dasi-do, kuli-ked-e-a-e. 'boko-m huch'-kan-a-e,' kora met-ad-e-a-e. asked-him-he. Servant, 'younger-brother-thy boy come-has-he,' said-to-him-he. 'apu-m-do asul-akan bachra-e mak'-aka-wad-e-a; boko-m bugi-bugi killed-has-for-him; younger-brother-thy father-thy fattedcalf-he well-well ñam-ruar-kan-a-e, men-te.' Maran-ni(ch') hopon-do kise-yen-a-e ora(k') found-again-is-he, saying.' Big-theson angry-became-he and house bolo(k')-te ka-e nam-la(k'). Apa-t-do urun-khon-te ini-e binti-ad-e-a. Father-his come-out-having him-he remonstrated-to-him. enter-to not-he wished. Huni-do apa-te-e met-ad-e-a, 'nele-me, in pura sirima-re ama(k')-in kamifather-the-he said-to-him, ' see, I many years-in thy-Iworkagu-ad-a, oro ama(k') miat' kaji-hõ ka-iñ taram-ked-a. En-re-o iñ one word-even not-I transgressed. carried-on, andthy That-in-even I gati-ko tuluch' iñ khusina men-te mit' merom hopon ka-m em-ad-iñ-a. friends with I might-feast saying one goatyoung not-thou gavest-to-me. Ne hopon-me-do etkan kuri-ko tuluch' ach'-a(k') khurji jom-chaba-keate son-thu bad women This mith own property eat-finished-having miat' motao-ked-i bachru huch'-kan-re, ini men-te-m ma(k')-awa-kad-ko-a. come-having-in, one fattedcalf himsaying-thou to-kill-causedst-them.' Apa-t-do, 'e hopon,'-e met-ad-e-a, 'am-do sab dine iñ thao-re-m dohon-a. Father-the, 'O son,'-he said-to-him, 'thou all days my place-in-thou art, iña(k')-a(k') sab oro sab ama(k')a(k'). Maran jojoma(k') banao oro and allmine allthine. Bigfeast to-prepare and khusi-o(k')-do huch'-len-a. Ni boko-m goch'-len-a-e, jito-feast came. This younger-brother-thy died-had-he, aliveandvid-ruar-kan-a-e; ad-len-a-e, oro nam-ruar-kan-a-e, men-te.' returned-has-he; lost-was-he, and found-again-is-he,

[No. 32.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWÄRĪ.

Korwā.

SPECIMEN V.

(Messrs. S. P. Shaw and S. Bajray, 1898.)

(DISTRICT HAZARIBAGH.)

Mia(t')-hor hor bare-gota kora chondich' hopon-wan-a. He-kin-te children sons-were-to-him. One-person man boytwoThese-two-in hudinich' hopon-to apat-tet'-e kahri-wad-e-a, 'apa ho, amak' dhanfather-his-the-he said-to-him, 'father O, small-the son propertyiń-ak' hatiń-wań-me.' me-se hisa Ena-wari-do anech-rak' dhan-e divide-to-me-thou. share Then self-of my property-he hatiñ-wat'-kin-a. Bonum din-do menei doho-gan-a, hudin-aeich' hopon-tu divided-to-them-two. Many days notpassed-for-him, small-the jama-ket'-te sangiñ tamani des-e chalao-yen-a, aur hante-re luchpancollected-having distant country-he went, andthereriotousnessdhan-tae-do-e urao-ted-a. Taman. dhan-e urao-hani-ked-a, property-his-he spent. Allspent-wasted, property-he thatwari-do hina des-re akal-ted-a-e, aur meni garib-yen-a. men that country-in famined-he, and he destitute-became. And he mia(t') hor thao sen-ka-te doho-tan-a-e. Meni hor-do anech'-ra(k') khet-re man place gone-having stayed-he. Thatmanself-of sukri charawu kol-ted-e-a. Aur meni hor-do sukri jomeyat'-ware busu(p')-tu swine to-feed sent-him. And that man swine eating-from husks-the sane-ad-e-a. Aur kanae horo men-ko jom-gi ow-ae-tan-a. Henawish-seized-him. And anymannot-they giving-to-him-were. Thatwari hani hor-do chet'-do pakrao-en-a aur meni hor-do kähri-ted-a-e, 'iñak' after that man mind caught and that man timin nokar-ko jome-a(k') wari-do adik-te-ko name-yat'-a, apu-ñ-ren-ko father-my-of-they how-many servants foodfrom more-they aur in-do rengech'-te-n gujuk'-tan-a. In rim-kok'-te apu-ñ-thao in senuk'-a. Ι I arisen-having father-my-place I go-shall hunger-in-I dying-am. "apa ho, in-do Bhagwan maran-re aur am maran-re-n tebog-e-a, and I say-to-him-shall, "father O, I God before and thee before-I pap-ket'-a, aur in-do am hopon ghaite-do mene-n bujhaok'-tan-a. Aur thy son worthy sinned, and \boldsymbol{I} not-I feel-myself. And me-also-

hai-te rakhao-tad-iñ-me."' Hena-wari rim-ken-te apa-t tha-re That-after arisen-having father-his servants keep-me-thou." place-he sangiń-wari sen-en-a-e. Aur ñel-ñam-ked-i-te apa-t-do-e ach' distance-atAnd went-he. to-see-got-having-him-on father-his-he himself moh-wae-tan-a, aur ñir-sen-ken-te hotok'-tu-re khaori-ked-i-te ach' prtied-him, andrun-gone-having neck-on embraced-having-him-on himself hopon apa-t-tu kähri-wad-e-a, chok'-yad-e-a-e. \mathbf{Aur} 'apa ho, iñ-do Bhagwan kissed-him-he. And sonfather-his said-to-him, father O, Godmaran-re aur am maran-re-iñ pap-ket'-a, aur iñ-do am hopon ghaite-do mene-ñ and thee before-I sinned, and I thyson not-I bujhaok'-tan-a.' Hena-wari-do apa-t-do nokar-ko-tae kahri-wat'-(ko-)a-e, 'sagro chirak' That-after father-his servants-his said-to(them)-he, feel-myself. wari chikana chirak' niwar-ka-te ak-ke-te dhuti-y-e-pe; aur meni ti-re from goodclothtaking-out bringing put-on-him-ye; and hand-on angthi aur kata-t-re panahi tusin-wae-pe; abo-do-bo jomok'-a, aur ar-bo and foot-his-on shoe put-on-him-ye; andwe-we shall-eat, and-we kusik'-a, chele-lagit', iñ hopon-do goch'-yan-a, phin-e jiwaok'shall-make-merry, what-for, son died-for-me, again-he alivekan-a; at'-len-a, ñam-keyen-a.' phin-e Hena-wari-do sagro-ko kusi-yen-a. became; lost-was, again-he found-has-been.' That-after all-they merry-made. Bade-aei(ch') hopon-tu-do khet-re-e doho-tan-a. Ena-wari-e hijuk'-tan-a Elder-the son field-in-he was. That-after-he cameorak'-i teyak'-bañchao-ket'-a, hena-wari-do baja-e añjom-ket'-a, ar-ko enech'near-came, house-he that-after music-he heard, and-they dancingtan-a, hina gul-i anjom-ket'-a. anech'-renich' mia(t') Aur hor nokaru-do-e were, that sound heard.And self-of onemanservant-he rak'-ked-i-te ach' homori-yad-e-a-e, 'noa-do-ko chele-yen-a? Hini called-him-having himasked-him-he, ' these-things what-are? Hekãhri-tet'-a-e, 'amak'-ai(ch') bhae-do-e me(ch)'-ken-a, aur amak'ai(ch') apu-m-do said-he, 'thy brother-he come-has, andthyfather-thy khaena-e isin-ket'-a, jakar jakar meni-do besmi pao-ket'-a-e.' en-te Hanagoodgoodfood-he cooked-his, this-for him well received-he.' Thatwari-do-e khîs-en-a. aur bhitar-do e mene-i bolo-gan-a. Hena-wari-do angry-became, insideandnot-he entered. That-on apa-t-do baher-re udun-ken-te manao-ted-e-a-e. Meni apa-t-tet'-e kãhrifather-his outside come-out-having entreated-him-he. Hefather-his-he said-'ñel-eñ-me apa, namin baris-do-iñ sewa-yet'-me-a, aur kabhi 'look-at-me-thou father, so-many to-him, years-I serve-thee, ever amak' kãhṛi-do mene-ñ tarao-gat'-a. Aur am-do kabhi mia(t')-tan merom thywordnot-I broken-have. And thouever one goathopon-hõ mene-m em-gad-iñ-a je gate-ko sudha-ñ kusien menu(k'). young-even not-thou given-hast-to-me that friends with-Imerry might-be.

hãi jom-ket'-a, dhan-do-e sudha amak' chinari-ko Nei hopon-me-do, he devoured, property-he withthyThis son-thy, harlotskhaena-em taiyar-ket'-a.' Apa-t meni chikan-chikanak' mejuk'-mejuk'-te himFather-his preparedst.' coming-coming-on good-goodfood-thou je huda-m dohon-tan-a. Aur iñ kähri-wat'-a, dinu o beta, namen Andme with-thou art.whatso-many dayssaid-to-him, · 0 son, dohon-a, iń-ak' idana-do anam-ak'-a. Hena-wari-do jarur-me kusi-kok'-te-m proper-thou merry-making-thou should-be, thine-is. That-on mine $i\dot{s}$ at'jiwao-ken-a; goch'-len-a, phin-e chele-lagit', am-ak' bhae-do-e lostalive-became; died-had, again-he hewhat-for, thy brother-he пат-ken-а.' len-a-e, phin-e found-was.' had-been-he, again-he

ERNGĀ OR SINGLĪ.

The Erngas are a sub-tribe of the Korwas. In Sarguja they are stated to be divided into two sub-castes, the Biranjhias and the Tisias.

Erngā has only been returned as a separate dialect from the Jashpur State. Local estimates give 500 as the number of speakers. At the last Census of 1901, 173 speakers were returned, viz., 18 in Ranchi and 155 in the Chota Nagpur Tributary States.

The specimens forwarded from the Jashpur State are not good enough to allow us to arrive at certainty about all details. This much, however, is certain that the Erngā of Jashpur is essentially identical with the so-called Korwā of that State. We find the same use of \bar{o} instead of \bar{a} or \bar{e} in verbal tenses, and the same change of t' to d, d, r, and r. Thus, $mis\bar{a}$ -en- \bar{a} - $y\bar{o}$, he joined; emek'-wad-i- \bar{a} - $y\bar{o}$, he has given a feast for him; $kas\bar{u}r$ -ted- \bar{a} , I sinned; $t\bar{a}t\bar{a}n$ -kir- $t\bar{n}$ - \bar{a} , Santālī tetan-ted- $t\bar{n}$ - $t\bar{n}$. I became thirsty; $mar\bar{a}o$ -tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-tir-ti

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is the same as in Korwā. Compare mit' $h\bar{o}r$ -rekenā, one man-of; $r\bar{a}ij$ -ō, in the country; am-rak' and anam-rak', thy; $ap\bar{a}$ -t, his father; apa-tam, thy father; boho-tukū, their sister; $ap\bar{a}$ -tō, the father, and so forth.

With regard to demonstrative pronouns we may note $h\tilde{a}e$, $m\tilde{a}e$, that; $man\tilde{a}$, this thing; $h\tilde{a}n\tilde{a}$, that, etc. 'Who?' is iyek', and 'what?' chilak.

The conjugation of verbs is the same as in Korwā. Thus we find the same dropping of the final n of verbal tenses. Compare $\bar{\imath}d\bar{a}n-\bar{a}$ and $\bar{\imath}d\bar{a}$, is; $d\bar{o}h\bar{o}-t\bar{a}$, was. $\bar{I}d\bar{a}$ is further abbreviated to $d\bar{a}$, when used as a copula. Thus, $Ka\acute{s}m\bar{\imath}r$ tumin $laukak'-d\bar{a}$, how far is Kaśmir? am $bab\bar{a}$ orak'-rē tumin $b\bar{e}t\bar{a}-k\bar{u}-d\bar{a}$, how many sons are there in your father's house?

The suffix tan, $t\bar{a}$, is commonly used to form a present or future. Thus, $sen-t\bar{a}$, I go, I shall go; $j\bar{o}m-tan-\bar{a}-ing$, I shall eat. A form such as $kat\bar{a}w\bar{a}-ki-y-\bar{a}$, I shall be called, seems to contain the conjunctive suffix ke. $W\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}w\bar{a}$ is the well-known Aryan causative suffix.

The various suffixes denoting past time are used as in Korwā. The set et', at', en, an, occurs in forms such as sen-ed-ā, he went; duduk'-ar-i-yā, he suckled him; hāṭing-ōd-ō, i.e., hāṭing-wad-ā, he divided; mesā-en-ā-yō, he joined; ukik'-yan-ā-yō, he got angry; bajhāo-yen-ā, he was ensnared; goch'-nen-ā, he died.

The k-suffix is likewise in common use. Compare $waich'-ki-y\bar{a}-y\bar{o}$, he came; $t\bar{a}t\bar{a}n-kir-i\bar{n}-\bar{a}$, I am thirsty; $durup'-kiy-\bar{a}$, he is sitting; $n\bar{a}m-gad-\bar{o}$, he got; $b\bar{o}l\bar{o}-gan-\bar{a}$, he entered. The initial g of such suffixes is, however, perhaps often miswritten for g.

The following are instances of the t suffix, $kas\bar{u}r$ -ted- \bar{a} , I have sinned; $kat\bar{a}$ -ted- \bar{a} , $kat\bar{a}$ -ter- \bar{a} , he said; $tur\bar{a}o$ -tar- \bar{a} , he collected, and so forth.

Compare further forms such as $s\bar{o}d\bar{o}r$ -len- \bar{a} , he arrived; $t\bar{o}r\bar{a}y\bar{o}$ and $t\bar{o}r\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, he went; $t\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{u}$, they went, etc.

The imperative is regular, but no suffix is added in order to indicate the subject; thus, $rakh\bar{a}w$ -ing, keep me; $\tilde{n}aw$ - $\bar{a}ing$, seek for me. Note forms such as $j\bar{o}m$ - $b\bar{u}$, let us eat; tusin- $g\bar{o}d\bar{o}$, put on him.

Different verbal bases are apparently formed as in Santālī and Mundārī. Compare jōjōm, eat; tik'l and til, cover, etc.

The negative particle is mē as in Korwā.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son. The second is a popular tale. I have corrected obvious mistakes and tried to introduce consistency in the spelling. In other respects I have left the specimens as I got them.

[No. 33.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

KORWA.

SPECIMEN I.

ERNGA OR SINGLI DIALECT.

(STATE JASHPUR.)

hör-rekenä bar hōr-king dōhō-tā. Huring bēta-t apat-tē One man-of twosons (sic.) were. . Small son-his father-his-to ٠ē kat-ter-ā-yō ki, abā, dē itādō hahating hāting-wā-ing-mē.' saidthat, 0 father, please this-all sharedivide-to-me-thou.' Laich'-kū apā-tō hāṭing-ōd-ō. Lēsan dinō huring bēṭa-t jhārī ṭurao-tar-ā father-the divided. Fewdays-in small son-his alltahā jabar lanka-e sen-ed-a-e, $\bar{\mathbf{ar}}$ jhārī jom-ku hāṭing-sābā-gō-teḍ-ā. Jhārī far-he went-he. andall eatables distribute-finished. Allsābāō-tē hanā rāij-ō jabar akāl-en-ā. Rangech'-ā, guju(k')-tā. Nihu-do that country-in heavy famined. Starved, died. Then rāij-rī mit'-hōr hōr saṅge mesā-en-ā-yō. Tab hae hãe-ya(k') he that country-in one-man man with joined-was-he. Then he his sarāwā lōyōng-rē wārwōn-ed-ī-ō. Tab sukrī-kū jōm-kē-ā, hanā hērē swine to-tend field-in sent-him. swineThen ate. thosehusks ňām-rē-dō jōm-kē-ā. Mē ňām-gaḍ-ō. Taem-tē-dō öngöl-ted-a-yō ach'-mē mangetting-in ate.Not got. Afterwards came-to-senses mindkatā-ted-ā, 'āing bābā-ra(k')-kū harwāhā-kū jabar-kō pāwā-tā-kū jom-ta. · my father-of-they servants much-they get-they eat. Ing-do rangā-ing gujuk'-tā. Ing rīm-u(k')-tā-ing āpā-ng-ka-ing ār sen-I hunger-I die. I. arise-shall-Iand father-my-near-I tā ār hãe-kā-ing katā-e-tā, " Bhagwān-kā-ing kasūr-ted-ā-ing $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}$ and him-to-I " God-to-I say-to-him-shall, sin-did-I chēlēmā-ng katā-wā-ki-y-ā? Ing ām am-a(k') harwāhā ām met'-tē. Ām bētā Thyeye-in. 80n how-I can-be-called? Me thou servants madhē-rē mit'-hōr rakhāw-ing."' $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{\tilde{\tilde{a}}e}$ rēm-nen-ā-yō apā-tākā torāyo. amongone-man keep-me." Hearosefather-near went. Hae-ya(k') āpa-t iabar lankā-te nil-lī-yā-yō. Ñil-lī-yā, khān-ō sõgā-wad-Hisfather very far saw-him. Saw-him. then pity-cameñir-sen-ed-ā-yō tēmtō hōtō-tē sab-tar-ā-yō māik'-yōk'-āiyok'-ad-i-yō. i-yā, ran-went to-him, thenneck-on seizedhim-kissed.

[No. 34.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHERWĀRĪ.

KORWĀ.

SPECIMEN II.

ERNGĀ OR SINGLĪ DIALECT.

(STATE JASHPUR.)

A POPULAR TALE.

Bārah bahin-kū dohon-en-ā. Tō bārh-ō bahin akū salah-nen-ā, 'dō-bū Twelve sisters Then twelve-the sisters they were. agreed. 'well-we pahār, bās-pahār-bū sen. Hēlēt-bū dech'-ā-bū jom.' bamboo-mountain-we shall-go. mountain, Sprouts-we gather-shall-we to-eat. Dech'-dech'-tē jamā-kū ōlōk' pērēch'-ān. bārah babin-rē mit'-hōr $T\bar{o}$ ōdōbaskets were-filled. Then twelve sisters-in one-person child-Gathering-in 'Dō-bū nihu-dō oṛa(k')-bu dēwēr. Tahā-dō nihu ōlōk'-bū rēm.' rē dohon-ā. 'Well-we withwas. now home-we shall-go. Thennow baskets-we raise.' Chhēdolā boho-tuku-ērā jāwā-janamē-ān. Akū sen-ā. 'Ing ólók'-pē Youngest sister-their-female was-delivered. They go. · My basket-you Rēm rēm.' dāī. rēm-got', 'Nā-rē rēm ānā-dō ērō, katā-ted-ā. · Tō raise-quickly, sister. Raise raise.' Now raise that yourself, said. ' Then go(k')-lē-kan-rē-dō jom-tan-a-ing. hēlēt-ing ing Nak'yō bālak dembā-ing I eat-shall. sprouts-Icarry-if Thisyoung baby-I go(k')-lē-kan-rē-dō rangā-ing gujuk'-tā. Hēlēt-sōklā-rē-dō tik'l-ātu-ing.' hunger-I die-shall. shall-cover-outright-I.' Sprouts-husks-in Til-tir-i-kan torā-kū. Boi-rē sāil dōhōn-ā. $T\bar{o}$ sāil katā-ted-ā, Covering-it-when went-they. Wood-in bison was. Then bison said. mātak'-ā chilā sabad?' rē pāwan rājā, Sarā-najikāo-nen-ā. tō king, hold-hard O wind hear what sound?' Graze-approach-did, then āvum-ñām-ted-ā, Lutur-te-ing 'manwā hōn uri āi-rē. gok'-gi-ing. Na-ing to-hear-got, `man childlikeOh.Ear-with-Icarry-shall-I. Now-I asul-ī.' Bathān-rē marāo-tir-i-yā-dō, sāil sarā-tōrā-yā. 'Tuwā tatan-kir-iñ-ā will-keep-it.' Cattle-pen-in put-it. bison graze-went. "Milk thirsty-made-me tirrī āyā.' Sonkēmā bāswū. Khūr khūde singh jhāte dār totāyā ot O mother.' Golden flute. Hoofs trampled horns shook branches broke earth dolaon-e barah got pahār ghās ae sarāo-len-ā, bārah pukrī dak' ñū-ted-ā, shook twelve piece mountains' grass he grazed, twelve ponds' water södör-len-ā, dembā-kā duduk'-ăr-i-yā. Ae hārā-len-ā. Aiing ghōk-tid-i-yā, 'ē came, childsuckled. He grew-up. Mother said, O mother,

sõhē-tā-ing.' tusingē-tā; sonhē kijā-wā-ing, ñaw-ā-ing, Sāil pairī buy-for-me, seek-for-me, shall-put-on; clothes shall-wear-I. Bison pairī dē-hōr-tē tāvam-tē sāil hōr ' södör-len-ä. Bairī sarā-torāyā. Hānā graze-went. That after bison following came. Enemy hōr lōhā Chār khữt kuntī surī tulā-ted-ā-ē. ropā-ted-ā-ē. Rak'-tid-i. nails made-he. Four corners nails man iron fastened-he. Called-him, 'tirrī āyā.' Son-ker murlī āyum-ted-ā-ē. Sāil södör-len-ā. Sagrö pākhī · 0 mother.' heard-he. Golden fluteBisoncame. AllsidesSāri-ō khữţ kindrā, kārā pākhī durā-tō. ret'-yan-ā. 'Ing-do, āyā, went-round, which sideentrance. ' Me, Four corners shut-were. mother, ret'-kid-iñ-a, harāo-kid-iñ-a saṇdal hērēl ghumāo-kid-iñ-ā.' Hinmin-rē thief man shut-in-me. stole-me hemmed-in-me.' baseman That-time-in enga-t sāil dak'-yan-āik (sic.) lōhā-sũrī-rē bajhāo-yen-ā. Tāyam-tē-dō mother-his bison entangled-being iron-nails-in ensnared-was. Afterwardslebdā-yen-ā. 'bolok'-waich'-mē sāṇḍāl Hānak'-rā ērā lāñī katāy-ā, fell-down. This-on female child says-to-him, 'enter-come basehērēl. Engā-ing-do net'-kid-i-yā. Ab-dō asul-ing-mē, nā-lāgā, engā-ing-rā man. Mother-my killedst-her. Now keep-me-thou, this-for, mother-my-of jiu harāo-go(ch')-ted-ā.' took-killedst.' life

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time twelve sisters agreed to go to the mountain and gather bamboo shoots to eat. So they did so, and their baskets were all filled. One of the twelve sisters was with child. When they were going to take their baskets and return home, the youngest sister was delivered, and asked them to take her basket, but they told her to do so herself. She reflected, 'if I take the basket with me, I shall have something to eat; if I take the child, I shall die from hunger. I will cover it with shoots and husks.' After having covered the child they went off.

Now there was a bison in the forest. He said, 'O wind-god, what is the sound I hear?' He came nearer grazing, and he heard, 'it is like a child; I shall take and carry it on my ears, and tend it.' He placed it in an enclosure and went to graze. The child cried, 'I am thirsty, O mother, and want some milk.' He gave him a golden flute.¹ With trampling hoofs, shaking its horns, breaking the branches of the trees, and shaking the earth, the bison grazed up the grass of twelve mountains and drank up the water of twelve ponds, and then came and suckled the child. It grew up and said to the mother, 'O mother, go and look out for a Pairi for me, I will put it on; go and buy clothes for me, I will wear them.' The bison went to graze, and a man came after it. The wicked man made iron spikes and fixed them at all the four corners of the enclosure. The child called, 'O mother.' The bison heard the sound of the golden flute. He came and went to all corners to look for the entrance, but they were all shut. Said the child, 'a wicked man has shut me up and hemmed me in.' Then the bison was entangled in the spikes and fell down. Said the child, 'enter, O wicked man; you have killed my mother, and now you must keep me, because you have taken my mother's life.'

¹ The text is wrong. The sense seems to be that the bison gave the child a golden flute which it blew when it wanted to call the bison.

KÜRKÜ.

The Kürküs are the westernmost Mundā tribe. Their dialect is spoken by about 100,000 individuals.

The word $K\bar{u}rk\bar{u}$ is the plural of $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, a man, which word is identical with Mundari $h\hat{a}r\hat{a}$, Santālī $h\hat{a}r$, a man. The dialect is occasionally called Name of the dialect. $K\bar{o}r\bar{o}$ $p\bar{a}rs\bar{\imath}$, the Persian (i.e. non-Indo-Aryan language) of the $K\bar{o}r\bar{o}s$.

The home of the Kūrkūs are the Satpura and Mahadeo Hills. Proceeding from the west we find them in the south of Nimar and in the Kalibhit and Rajaborari forests in the south-west of Hoshangabad, and further in the district of Betul, where they are most numerous in the western portion on the Tapti. Farther east they are found in the Mahadeo Hills in the north of Chhindwara. From the south-eastern corner of Betul the frontier line crosses into Berar, where Kūrkūs are thinly scattered in the Morsi taluka of Amraoti, while they are found in considerable numbers in the Melghat Taluka of Ellichpur and the adjoining parts of Akola. There are only very few speakers found outside this area. Some Kūrkūs were originally returned from the Sarguja State in Chota Nagpur under the name of Kōrkū. It has already been mentioned that Kōrkū is, in this case, a miswriting for Kōrā-kū, one of the names used to denote the Korwās.

There is only one sub-dialect of Kūrkū, the so-called Muwāsī, spoken in Chhindwara.

It does not differ much from ordinary Kūrkū. The Nahālī dialect of Nimar is now a mixed form of speech. There are, however, some indications which point to the conclusion that the original base of the dialect was related to Kūrkū, and Nahālī will therefore be dealt with in connexion with this language. It is different from Nāharī, a broken form of Halabī spoken in the Kanker State, and from Naharī, a Bhīl dialect spoken in Nasīk and Sargana.

The number of speakers of Kurku has been estimated for the purposes of this Number of speakers.

Survey as follows:—

				•						
Central Provin	ces									
Hoshangal	ad an	d Mal	rai						25,300	
Nimar									5,700	
Betul									31,400	
Chhindwan	а.								8,360	
					To	FAL C	ENTRA	L PROV	inces .	70,760
Berar—										
Amraoti									480	
Akola									1,434	
Ellichpur					٠.		2		35,010	
							T	OTAL B	ERAR .	36,924
							א א כדו	D TO	OTAT.	107,684
						· ·	TRAIN	D 10	IAU .	107,004

The Nimar figures include the speakers of Nahālī.

The Muwasi sub-dialect was returned from Chhindwara. The number of speakers has been estimated at 4,000. By adding that figure to those given above for Kürkü we arrive at the following total :-

1. 1.	Kürkü proper Muwāsi		:	:.	:	:	:	•	:	107,684 4,000	
								TAL		111,684	
T	he corresponding	figures	sat	the la	ast (Census	s of	1901	WOPA	as follows	
	Central Provinces	_				·	O OL .	LOUL	WOLC	as lonows	
	. Mandla .				1729	100				14	
	Hoshangabad		į.		•	•	•	•	•	14	
	Nimar	12			•	•	•	•	•	10,039	
	Betul			•	•	•	•	•	•	17,220	
	Chhindwara .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	21,973	
1	Nagpur .		·	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,766	
	Makrai .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	12	
			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,646	
	Berar—					TOTAL	CENT	RAL P	ROVINC	ES .	52,670
50 (350)	Amraoti .									668	
	Akola							- 5		594	
	Ellichpur .							•	•	27,080	
31	Basim						- 5	·	•	21,000	
				15.76	100		· Č	•	•		
	Central India—							Тот	AL BER	AR .	28,343
	Bhopal Agency	7 .								41	
	Bhopawar Age	ency					•	•	•	1	
								•	•	-	
							TOTAL	CENT	RAL IN	DIA .	42
	Assam										208
	Muwāsī of Chhindy	vara .			•						6,412
									To		
AUTHO	RITIES—								. 10	TAL .	87,675
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Kūrkū has no written literature, but many old songs have been preserved. The Gospel of St. Mark has been translated into the dialect by the Rev. John Drake.

Kūrkū is a dialect of the same kind as Khariā and Juāng. It has not, however, been influenced by Aryan dialects to the same extent as those forms of speech, and is more closely related to Kherwārī than they are.

Since the appearance of Mr. Drake's grammar Kūrkū is a comparatively well-known dialect, and I shall therefore only draw attention to some few characteristic points. For further details Mr. Drake's book should be consulted.

Pronunciation.—The phonetical system is, broadly, the same as in Santālī. E and o have two sounds each, as is also the case in Santālī. Thus, hej- $\ddot{a}g$ - $\ddot{a}ten$, coming from, after he had come; $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, a man; $m\bar{\epsilon}$ - $k\acute{a}r$, someone. In these examples \ddot{a} denotes the open sound of ai in 'pair,' and e the sound of a in 'table'; d is the e in 'all,' and \bar{o} the e in 'bone.' There is also a deep guttural e which apparently corresponds to the neutral e of Santālī. It is represented by the sign e; thus, e-e, yes.

Short and long vowels are often interchanged, and it is said to be frequently difficult or impossible to decide which should be considered correct.

There does not appear to be anything like the law of harmonic sequence observed in Santālī. There are, however, some traces which seem to show that Kūrkū has once, in this respect, agreed with Kherwārī. Compare $g\acute{a}ch'$ and gujuk', die; $k\bar{u}r-k\bar{u}$, men, from $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, a man. The form $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$ closely corresponds to Muṇḍārī $h\acute{a}r\acute{a}$, man. Instead of \bar{o} we find \acute{a} in $m\bar{\imath}-k\acute{a}r$, one man, someone.

The class consonants are the same as in Santālī. In addition to the palatals the dialect possesses the sounds \underline{ts} and \underline{dz} ; thus, $ch\bar{o}t\bar{o}$, how much? $\underline{ts}\bar{o}$, to prick. This state of affairs is probably due to the influence of Marāṭhī.

Kūrkū further possesses a zh, an r, an rh, and the same set of semi-consonants as Santālī. The semi-consonants have the tendency to be replaced by the corresponding soft consonants that has been observed in connected dialects. Thus, $ch\bar{o}ch$, what? genitive $ch\bar{o}j$ -a; bibit, rising, genitive bibid-a; $k\bar{a}kap$, to bite, present $k\bar{a}kab$ - $b\bar{a}$, and so forth. In many cases, however, the semi-consonant is no more heard and is only observable before vowels and consonants when it has been changed to the corresponding soft consonant. Thus, $\bar{u}r\bar{a}$, house; $\bar{u}r\bar{a}g$ - \bar{a} , of the house.

A k often corresponds to an k in Kherwārī. Thus, $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, Muṇḍārī $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, man; $k\bar{o}n$, Muṇḍārī $k\bar{a}n$, son; $k\bar{a}tin$, Muṇḍārī $k\bar{a}tin$, share; $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, Muṇḍārī $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, way, and so forth. It will be noticed that the Kūrkū form is more closely related to Muṇḍārī than to Santālī.

Dental and cerebral sounds are very commonly interchanged. Thus s and sh are very difficult to distinguish. Other specimens commonly write t and d instead of Mr. Drake's t and d, and so forth.

Ng often becomes m before b; thus, bang, not; bam-ba, is not.

Nouns.—There are two genders, one denoting animate beings, and the other denoting inanimate objects. The two genders are, however, often confounded.

The natural gender is indicated in the usual way, by means of different words, or by adding words meaning 'male' and 'female' respectively. In $k\bar{o}n$ - $j\bar{e}$, daughter; $b\bar{o}k\bar{o}$ - $j\bar{e}$, younger sister; and so forth, we have apparently a female suffix $j\bar{e}$. Compare Santālī aji-t, his younger sister.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. Number is only marked in the case of animate nouns. The suffix of the dual is king, and that of the plural $k\bar{u}$. In Akola we find $k\bar{\imath}$ instead of king, and in most specimens there is a tendency to replace the dual by the plural. This state of affairs is due to Aryan influence.

Case.—The cases of the direct and indirect object are often left unmarked. Usually, however, the postposition ken is added; thus, $k\bar{o}n$ -ken, to the son. Instead of ken we also find other forms such as $k\bar{e}$, $kh\bar{e}n$, $kh\bar{e}$, khin, kan, and, in Hoshangabad also, ko. There can be little doubt that the use of this postposition is due to Aryan influence.

The suffix of the genitive is a; thus, rangech, hunger; rangej-a, of hunger. According to Mr. Drake \bar{a} is used instead in such cases where a final k, which is no more sounded, becomes g before the genitive suffix. Thus, $d\bar{a}g-\bar{a}$, of water, from $d\bar{a}$, Mundari $d\bar{a}k$, water.

The suffix $k\bar{a}$ (in $t\bar{u}p\bar{o}-k\bar{a}$, of ghee; $pop\bar{a}-k\bar{a}$, of the hole, etc.) is probably Aryan. The genitive suffix is commonly dropped after vowels. Thus, $ab\bar{a}$, of the father.

The suffix of the ablative is ten, which is usually added to the genitive; thus, $k\bar{o}n$ -a-ten, from the son. Instead of ten we also find tan and te.

A locative is formed by adding en, or after vowels, n; thus, $g\tilde{a}w$ -en, in the village; khiti-n, in the field.

The suffix $t\bar{e}$, which probably corresponds to Santālī $t\bar{a}t'$, is apparently used as a definite article. Thus, $b\bar{a}-t\bar{e}-ken$, to the father.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not change for gender, number, or case. Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative. Thus, $in\bar{i}\ k\bar{o}r\bar{a}\ d\bar{i}\ k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ -ten $s\bar{a}rk\bar{a}\ k\bar{a}$, this road that road-from straight is, this road is straighter than that road.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. Higher numbers are counted in twenties; thus, $up\bar{u}n$ $\bar{\imath}s\bar{a}$, eighty; mono $\bar{\imath}s\bar{a}$, five twenties, hundred. Aryan forms are, however, commonly used instead.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

		Sin out to a	D _U .	AL.	PLU	RAL.
		Singular,	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.
1st person, nom.		ing.	ā-ling.	ā-lang.	ā-lē.	ā-bu n g.
" gen.		ingya.	ā-ling-a.	ā-laṅg-a.	\bar{a} - $l\bar{e}(-ya)$.	ā-bung-a.
,, suffix		ing.	ling.	lang.	lē.	bung.
2nd person, nom.		am.	<i>*.</i>	\bar{a} -piùg.	20% 2	ā-pē.
" gen.		am-a.		ā-ping-a.	13343 1	\bar{a} - $p\bar{e}$ (- ya).
suffix		mī, am.	•	ping.		pē.
3rd person, nom.		dīch'.	dī-king.	41.07	dī-kū.	
" gen.	. :	dīj-a.	dī-king-a.		dī-kū.	
" suffix		ech'.	king.		$k\bar{u}$	

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The suffix forms of the personal pronouns are used in order to denote the direct and indirect object with verbs. See below.

The suffix $k\bar{a}$ can be added to the personal pronouns in order to emphasize; thus, $ing-k\bar{a}$, I myself.

Demonstrative pronouns are $in\bar{\imath}$, this; in-king, these two; $in\text{-}k\bar{\imath}$, these: $d\bar{\imath}ch'$, that (animate being); $d\bar{\imath}$, that (inanimate object); $nij\ddot{a}$, this very; $huj\ddot{a}$, that very. Other forms are $inh\bar{\imath}$, this; $min\bar{\imath}$, that, both recorded from Akola. $Min\bar{\imath}$, dual minking, plural minking, is commonly used as a suffix in order to form relative participles and nouns of agency; thus, $\bar{a}d\text{-}jen\text{-}min\bar{\imath}$, the lost one; $ur\bar{a}g\text{-}en\text{-}mink\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}ur\text{-}k\bar{\imath}$, housein men, the men in the house. Instead of $min\bar{\imath}$ we often find $\bar{\imath}taich'$ or ech'; thus, $b\bar{\imath}t'\text{-}ken\text{-}\bar{\imath}taich'$, one who has risen; $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ enen-ech' $d\bar{\imath}n$, he here-man was, he was here.

Interrogative pronouns are $y\bar{e}$, who? $ch\bar{o}ch$, what? $t\bar{o}n\bar{e}ch$ (animate), and $t\bar{o}n\bar{e}$ (inanimate), which? $ch\bar{o}t\bar{o}$, how much? how many? and so forth. $\bar{A}m\bar{a}e$, who? and $ant\bar{u}ne$, who? have been recorded from Betul. Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $k\bar{a}$ to the interrogative ones; thus, $t\bar{o}n\bar{e}ch$ - $k\bar{a}$, someone; $y\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{a}$, anybody.

There are no relative pronouns. The various tenses and the nouns of agency are used instead.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is simpler than in Kherwārī. Thus there are no traces of the categorical a; the direct and the indirect objects are not distinguished, and, in a similar way, the same form is used to denote the passive and middle voices; the number of inflexional bases is more restricted; and the subject of the verb is not indicated by means of pronominal suffixes. On the whole, however, the conjugational system is the same as in Kherwārī, and even the common suffixes are easily recognizable.

The subject of the verb is not usually indicated in the verb, but in $ing\ tich'-k\bar{a}n-ing$ and $ing\ t\bar{a}-k\bar{a}n-ing$, I am, $ing\$ is commonly added as in Kherwārī. Similarly the number of the subject is indicated by adding the usual dual and plural suffixes in the case of the verb $tich'-k\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}-k\bar{a}$, to be; thus, $d\bar{i}-k\bar{u}$ $tich'-k\bar{a}-k\bar{u}$, they are. According to Mr. Drake such forms are only used in the third person. Other sources also give forms such as $\bar{a}bung\ t\bar{a}-k\bar{a}-k\bar{u}$, we are.

The direct and indirect objects are usually, but not always, indicated by adding the suffix forms of the personal pronouns. No suffix is added if the object is an inanimate thing. The suffixes are usually dropped in the reduplicated form of the base, and there is apparently a strong tendency to discard them altogether.

In such forms as end in a vowel a consonant is inserted before suffixes beginning with a vowel. Thus the suffix of the first person singular in such cases becomes ning, and that of the third person nech or $d\bar{c}ch$. $D\bar{c}ch$ is identical with the full form of the pronoun. The initial d is, however, probably due to the existence of an old final t in such tenses, which has been preserved under the influence of the pronoun. The n which is inserted before ing and ech is perhaps also derived from an old t. Compare the tendency stated to exist in Mundari to pronounce the semi-consonants through the nose. It is, however, also possible that the use of n in such cases is due to a confusion between the transitive and intransitive forms of the verb.

A few examples will be sufficient to show how the pronominal suffixes are used in Kūrkū. Compare dīch' tōl-mī-bā, he binds thee; ing tōl-ē-dīch'-bā, I bind him; dīch' ing-

ken tōl-kä-n-ing, he bound me; sāhibō ing-ken īnām īw-ä-n-ing dān, the sahib gave me a present; am-a kaurē dīch'-ken ghāl-ech', show him thy shoes, and so forth.

Conjugational bases.—The active and passive voices are distinguished as in Kherwārī. The suffix of the passive base is \bar{u} or $y\bar{u}$; thus, $guj-\bar{u}$, to die; $m\bar{u}-y\bar{u}$, to enter; $k\bar{u}l-y\bar{u}$, to be sent; $tol-y\bar{u}$, to be bound. Forms such as $dug-\bar{u}g-en$, into appearing; $t\bar{o}l-y\bar{u}g-a$, of the binding, and so forth, show that the final \bar{u} has originally been followed by a guttural semi-consonant k. Compare Kherwārī ok, uk, og-ok.

Reduplicated bases are of frequent occurrence. Thus, $b\bar{\imath}$ and $b\bar{\imath}-b\bar{\imath}$, to fill; $j\bar{o}m$ and ju-jum, to eat; $k\bar{u}l$ and ku-kul, to send; $b\bar{\imath}t'$ and bi-bit', to rise.

The use of the infix p in order to form reciprocal bases is less common than in Kherwārī; thus, $\bar{a}rang$, to abuse; $\bar{a}-pa-rang$, to quarrel.

Causative bases are formed by prefixing \bar{a} or by suffixing $k\bar{\imath}$. Thus, $n\bar{u}$, to drink; $\bar{a}nn\bar{u}$, to give to drink; $b\bar{\imath}t'$, to rise; bit'- $k\bar{\imath}$, to raise.

A transitive force is usually also attached to the \bar{e} which is often added to the original base; thus, $\bar{o}l$ and $\bar{o}l\bar{e}$, to write. Compare, however, $b\bar{\imath}t'$ and $b\bar{\imath}d-\bar{e}$, to rise; $h\bar{e}$ and $hej\ddot{a}$, to come, and so forth.

Inflexional bases.—The various inflexional bases can be used as nouns, as adjectives, and as verbs. No such thing as a categorical α exists to show that such forms are used in the function of a verb.

Future and indefinite present.—The simple base is used as a kind of subjunctive. Thus, $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ $b\bar{\imath}t'$, he may, or should, rise; $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ shene, he may go. A suffix $b\bar{a}$ is usually added in order to form a present or future base. Thus, $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ $b\bar{\imath}d$ - $b\bar{a}$, $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ $b\bar{\imath}d$ -e- $b\bar{a}$, $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ bi-bid- $b\bar{a}$, he rises, he will rise. In Hoshangabad we find $w\bar{a}$, \bar{o} , or $w\bar{o}$ instead. Thus, $bhan\bar{e}$ - $w\bar{o}$, I shall say; $kum\bar{a}$ - \bar{o} , I shall strike; $d\bar{o}d$ - \bar{o} , he sees, and so forth.

Past time.—As in Kherwārī, there are three different sets of suffixes denoting past time, one beginning with a vowel, another beginning with k, and the third beginning with l. The l-suffix only occurs in forms such as \bar{o} -len, \bar{o} - $l\ddot{a}$, went; $s\bar{a}$ - $l\ddot{a}$, brought, and so forth. It can therefore be left out of consideration.

According to Mr. Drake the k-suffix has the same significance as the suffix beginning with a vowel. The latter suffix begins with e or ye, instead of which some specimens have ya. Jen is sometimes substituted for yen, especially after consonants. Thus, sod-yen and sod-jen, fallen.

The past suffixes have one form ending in en, which is used with an intransitive or passive sense, and another form ending in \ddot{a} , which corresponds to Kherwārī et, and is used with an active or transitive meaning. It has already been remarked that an n is added to \ddot{a} before suffixes beginning with vowels. Compare $d\bar{c}ch$ $g\bar{o}-en$, he died; $d\bar{c}$ awal-yen, it was good; $d\bar{c}ch$ $t\bar{o}l-yen$, he was bound; $d\bar{c}ch$ bid-jen, he rose; ing $g\bar{o}-\ddot{a}-k\bar{u}$, I killed them; $d\bar{c}ch$ $b\bar{c}-n-ing$, he forsook me; $d\bar{c}ch$ $b\bar{c}$ -ken, he rose; $d\bar{c}ch$ $t\bar{o}l-k\bar{a}-ping$, he bound you two, and so forth.

The specimens printed below are very inconsistent in the spelling of these suffixes. Thus we find kin, kan, khen, khan instead of ken, and so forth. Compare also dij- \bar{a} $t\bar{\iota}$ $t\bar{o}l$ - \bar{e} - $kh\bar{o}$, his hands we bound, in the third specimen.

Compound tenses are formed by combining the inflexional bases with auxiliaries. The most common auxiliary is $tich'-k\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}-k\bar{a}$, is. It has already been noted that suffixes denoting the subject are sometimes added to this form. The simplest form of

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the copula is $k\bar{a}$, past $d\bar{a}n$; compare Santālī kan, is, Asurī $\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{a}n$, is, and so forth. Other auxiliaries are sen, which is used like $k\bar{a}$, and lap-ken or lap-jen, began. Thus, $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ $b\bar{\imath}t'$ -ken $k\bar{a}$, he has risen; $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ bibit'- $d\bar{a}n$, he was rising; $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ $d\bar{a}n$ -sen, he has been; $d\bar{\imath}ch'$ $b\bar{\imath}t'$ -lap-ken, he is rising. Instead of $d\bar{a}n$ we sometimes find $j\bar{a}$; thus, $g\bar{o}$ -yan- $j\bar{a}$, had died.

The various bases are also used as imperatives; thus, $b\bar{\imath}t'$, $b\bar{\imath}d-\bar{e}$, bibit', rise; $toly\bar{u}$, be bound; $t\bar{o}l-k\bar{\imath}$, bind; $\bar{\imath}-l\bar{e}$, give, and so forth. The suffix \bar{e} is very common in the imperative, not, however, in the middle and passive voices. In the case of transitive verbs, $k\bar{\imath}$ is preferred.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing $bak\bar{\imath}$ to the base; thus, $bak\bar{\imath}$ total, do not bind.

The negative particle is baig or hē-baig, which sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the principal verb. Thus, dīch' baig tōl, he does not bind; dīch' baig tōl-dān, he was not binding. Baig can, of course, be inflected as a verb; thus, dī awal baig-ū, that is not good; baig-en, was not; awal-yen baig or awal baig-yen, it was not good, and so forth. In the past tense, however, it is more common to add dun to the base; thus, dīch' baig bīt'-ken or dīch' bīt'-dun, he did not rise.

For further details the student is referred to Mr. Drake's grammar and to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son from Ellichpur for which I am indebted to the Rev. J. Drake. The second is a short tale in the Kūrkū dialect of Nimar; the third is the deposition of a witness, forwarded from Akola, and the fourth is a short tale from Hoshangabad. The fourth specimen is rather corrupt. A list of Standard Words and Phrases from Amraoti will be found below on pp. 242 and ff. It did not originally contain all the forms printed below. The missing ones have been supplied from other lists, and they have been printed within parentheses.

No. 35.

MUNDĀ FAMILY.

KŪRKŪ.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. John Drake, 1897.)

(DISTRICT ELLICHPUR.)

Mīā kōrō-ken bāriā kōn-king dān. Dō shanī-ītaich' hej-a bā-tē-ken One man-to Andyounger-the own father-his-to two sons were. mandī-wa-n-ech', 'aba, ātā ing-ya dāū-bā, dī ing-ken īlē.' māl-a said-to-him, father, property-of share myshall-be, that me-to give.' hej-a kāting-kā. Dīch' māl Ghönöch' din dā-dun tē shanī kon Heown property divided.Many days became-not then young shabō-kā gölā-kä, dō kālang-kā dēsh-ön ō-len. Dō dēn hej-a māl all-whatever gathered, and distant country-in went. And there own property būrā chāl-ten bid-kä. Dō dich' shabō shīā-kägāten, dī dēsh-ōn spent-from, evil behaviour-in squandered. And allthat country-in hedī -kād kāl bōchō-en, dō dīj-en kamtiyū endā-en. Dō dēsh-ō heavy famine befell, and him-in to-starve began. And thatcountry-of mīā thār-ītaij-a mēran dīch' milāting-yū ō-len; dīch' dō hej-a one dweller-of near he to-be-joined went; and heownfield-in sukarī-kū-ken gugupī antin dīch'-ken kūl-kä-n-ech'. Do sukarī-kū jujum swine tending for And him sent. swineeating dān, sālī-ten dīch' lājō bībī takū dān; dīch'-ken yē-kā belly to-fill wishing was; and were, those husks-from he him-to anyone īw-ech' bang Dich' ma-khan dīch' dān. usār-en, mhen-en, 'ingya giving-him not was. Hebecame-sensible, thenhesaid, 'my chōtō bhagiya-kū-ken kē ātā ghatā-ū-bā, dō sarāē-yū ētō father near how-many servants-to enough bread is-got, and to-be-saved so-much ghatā-ū-bā, dō ing rangej-a mār gujū lap-ken. Ing · bid-bā, dō is-got, and I hunger-of on-account dying Ι am.shall-arise. and mēran shene-bā, dō dīch'-ken māndī-wech'-bā, "abā, agāsō samman shall-say-to-him, "father, heaven before father-of near shall-go, and him-to dō am-a samman ing pāpō dā-kä. Dō sutū-ken am-a kōn māndiyū and thee-of before did.Ι sin Andhereafter thysonto-be-called Ing-ken am-a mīā bhagiya lēkān dōk-ing."' lēkān ing bang-ū. Dō dīch' keep·me." worthy I not-am. MethyservantlikeoneAnd he bid-jen, dō bā-tē Mētin dīch' kādilin dān, mēran kē-en. dī khendon arose, and father-his near But hefar was, that went. time

bā-tē dīch'-ken dō-kä-n-ech'; dō līrābārā-en, sarub-jen, dō dō dīj-a saw-him; and pitied, and ran, him father kōirīn gāti-en, dō tōtō ī-lä. Do kon-te dich'-ken mandi-wa-n-ech', father, and kiss gave. And son-the him-to said-to-him, fell, dug-ūg-en pāpō dā-kā, agāsō samman dō am-en dō kon-te am-a heaven before and thee-with presence-in sin did, and thy son ; māndi-yū lēkān ing sutūken bang-u.' Metin bā-tē hej-a bhagiya-kū-ken to-be-called worthy I henceforth not-am. But father-the owndō dīch'-ken ugūr-kī, dō 'awal-ten awal lījā sālī, mandī-wä-kū, said-to-them, 'good-from good cloth bring, and him-on put, mūndī uri-kī, dō dīj-a nāngān kaurē uri-kī. \mathbf{D} $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ ābung jujum and his feet-on shoes put. And we shall-eat hand-on ring put, dīch' ād-jen aiya-kū; inī ingya kon gō-en dān, dō $ar{ ext{eta}}$ jītā-en; and make-merry; this my son dead was, and again became-alive; he dān, dō ghatā-en.' aiyā-ū lap-ken. Dō dī-kū was, and was-found.' And they merry-making were.

hejā lap-ken, dō Mētin dīj-a kād kōn khitin-ech' dān. Dō dīch' his big son field-in-man was. And he coming and house mēran hādīr-ū lap-ken, dī khendōn dīch' bājá-sādī dō chusun ānjum-kä. and dancing hemusicnear arriving was, thattimeDō bhagiya-kū mī-kâr-ken dīch' kon-yān-ech' dō kōkōmarā-en, 'inī māndī asked. this matter called-him and heAnd servants-of one-man chōch'?' Dō dīch' dīch'-ken māndī-wä-n-ech', 'am-a hē-en: bōkō-tē 'thy younger-brother-the came; said-to-him, what?' And hehim-to bā-tē bhānā ī-kä.' dō dīch' awal-sajā-ten ghatā-en, inī lagin am-a thy father-the feast gave.' good-well was-found, this for dun dān. Inī bärā dīj-a dīch' khijū-en, do tālān shenē tak-ū he got-angry, and inside go wishing not-being was. This for his father-the Dō dīch' māndī-īrā-dōnē dīch'-ken bintī-kä-n-ech'. hē-en, đō dārūm-en he And said-back-having andhim entreated-him. came. outsideörösö-ten am-a kāmō ing dāē-lap-ken, bā-tē-ken māndī-wä-n-ech', 'dōgē, ētō 'see, so-many years-from thy work I doing-was, father-the-to said-to-him, Mētin ingya kibilī-kū dō am-a hukūm ing tōnē-kā khendōn dēj-dun. Butfriends time transgressed-not. order I anyand thy lagin am ing-ken mīā shirī kon-ken-tai ī-dun. aiyā-ū gelen ing one goat young-up-to gavest-not. I merry-making for thou me-to jof-en, inī am-a kon hē-en, dī-kā Mētin butanī-kū gelen am-a māl property wasted, this thywiththy Butharlots Do dich' dich'-ken mandi-wa-n-ech', khendon am dīj-a antin bhānā ī-kä.' thou his for-sake feast gavest.' And he him-to said-to-him,

am shabō-kā din ing gelen periā-kū lap-ken, dō ing-ya shabō-kā kōn, allart,andmystaying days me withson, thouallārī-yū awal dān. Am-a gō-en bōkō-tē Aiyā-ū đō am-a kā. To-make-merry and to-be-glad good was. Thy younger-brother dead thine is. dō ād-jen dān, dō ghatā-en.' ētā jītā-en; dān, dō was, and was-found,' was, and again became-alive; and lost

MUNDA FAMILY,

KŪRKŪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT NIMAR.)

THE HISTORY OF RAN-JI OF GOGALPUR.

Ĩ-yã jōmō Ran-jī dī ing Junāpānī Berār-en pēdāken dān. Ing ĩ-yã umar bāng My name Ran-jī and I Junāpānī Berar-in born was. I my age not hādē. Mēten ing-khen yādu-n tākhā, ĩ-yã ābā ing-khen miyã hēpā-n māṇdī-dān, know. But me-to memory-in is, my father me-to one time-at said, ing khat baṇdoko munoy ōrsō tāwen dāken-dān.

I big mutiny five yèars behind born-was.

Dīkhen-do ing gal örsö dān, ĩ-yã ābā ing-khē ĩ-ya bārī sanī I ten years was, my father me my two small younger-brothers, bōkō-jāi-kū dī ĩ-yã mãy bāynē-dō gō-en. aphai sānī Ālē āyambālā miyā three small younger-sisters and my mother leaving died. Our ancestral one sānī-sāng tīchā khētī dān. Mēten inhī ī-yā ābā miyā bohrā ī-yā khāt dādā plot land was. But this my father one Bohrā my big brother marriage gōjūg-ā bārī sāl sutū mērī-n gō-en, rupyā kolāwen hōtā antin, di ĩ-yã ābā for, he my father(-of) death-of two years before cholera-in died, money raising for girwā dō-khē-dān. Bā gō-en-lā-kā bohrā jhattō karjō mortgage done-had. Father died-after Bohrā immediate debt payment demanded. Ĩ-ya māy karjo adgiyo layko bang, etha khetī kāmāy lāykō bāng dān; My mother debt paying able not, and cultivation doing able not was; thereghalyā dīj dī-khen khēţī uwā-sākhnē. Mēten ālē palātiyā lāykō bāng en. Bhāgiyā fore she him-to field to-take-allowed. But we support able not-were. Service do jojomā ghataijā antin gaw babāy bocho-ken. Pahilā ālē Kēkrā jūmo gaw-en and food-of getting for village to-leave fell. First we Kekra named village-in bastī-ken. Pēn ing dō ĩ-yā māy miyā gaulī thām-en bhāgiyā dō-en, ēthā There I and my mother one Gowli with resided. servants became, then pösäng enda-en. I-yä mālikō (aphai īsā gal) bitkhil we to-support began. My master(-of) three-scores-ten she-buffaloes were; dīj-ā dēkhrēkhō ĩ-ya kāmō dān. tending myduty was.

En-en adrūg-ā bārī sāl bāṭon ālē-lēn khaṭ phijīṭō ḍā-en. Ĩ-yã bārī

Here arriving-of two years after us-upon big misfortune became. My two

bōkō-king miyã mahinā ṭālān gō-en, ēṭhā mēṭen ālē ḍī-kū

younger-brothers-they-two one month within died, and then we them(-of)

korō-jujum kula miya din dan, î-ya sab-ko-ten sani boko-jai-ken all-from small younger-sister man-eating tigermourning-in were, my men-do ālē phoran babāy tulliyenē-do sāynē. Dī-ghalyā dī gãw kharābō carrying-away was. Therefore that village bad saying we Mēten ālē inhī gaw-en hai-en, dē-ten āyē thārwā. takkō-ken. decided. Then we this village-in came, where now

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

My name is Ran-ji, and I was born in Junapani in Berar. I do not know my age, but I remember my father telling me that I was born five years after the great mutiny. My father died when I was ten years old, leaving me, two younger brothers, three younger sisters, and my mother. We had inherited a small plot of land, but this had been mortgaged by my father to a Bohrā in order to raise money for my eldest brother's marriage. He died of cholera two years before my father. The Bohrā demanded immediate payment of the debt after my father's death. My mother was neither able to pay nor to carry on the cultivation, and therefore she allowed him to take the land. We were now left without any means of subsistence, and we had to leave the village in search of employment and food. We at first settled in a village called Kekra, where I and my mother got employment under a Gowli, and were thus able to support ourselves. My master had seventy buffaloes, and it was my duty to tend them. Two years after our arrival there a great misfortune befell us. My two younger brothers died within the interval of a month, and while we were still mourning for their loss, a man-eating tiger one day carried off my youngest sister. We therefore thought that the place was unlucky and decided to leave it at once. We next went to the village where we are at present residing.

[No. 37.]

MUŅDĀ FAMILY.

KŪRKŪ.

SPECIMEN III.

(DISTRICT AKOLA.)

DEPOSITION OF A WITNESS.

Imān-ten ing māṇḍī-bā kī andājon pandharā din dā-yen, Šukar-wārā rātō, fifteen days became, FridayaboutthatOath-on I say rātō andājon ĩ-yā japāy ing-khē \mathbf{Bari} pār ing japāy bārī jāpini-kī gitī-ken. Two watches night aboutmywifewife two children slept. thādā-bhoganā sādi-ken. jyāttā-yan māṇdī-āndā-ken kī, 'urāgā tālā-n Meten vessels sounded. And that, 'house-of middle-in saying-was awaked chālā ānjimū-bā; dikān-tīn bid-ē.' Inkā-ānti ing bid-jen; dhipī āngān kōrō man-(of) sound is-heard; therefore get-up.' Thereupon I arose; wall towards Inkā-ānti ~~yen iphin ing dō-khē, ma-khan in-khē popā dō-khen. was-thought hole appeared. Thenme-in thatme-to Ι Urag-a tālā-n tālā-n tone-kegare hē-en. phadī-kē, urāg-ā urā house-of middle-in came. House-of middle-in someonebroke, house diwā bāng-dā. Ĩ-yā biṇḍilā īṭān āngār-pēṭī ṭākhā-dān. Dēṭokā ōkhaṭ-ōn āngār-pēṭī bed under match-box placed-was. Thattime-at match-box lamp not-was. My Inī chör dhipī popā-khē mērā sēnē-āndā-ken, ĩ-yā najar dij-en wat-khē no lāp-khē. This thief wall hole-to near to-go-began, my sight that-in took-out and lighted. tī uthāe; ing māndī-on-ē(ch'), 'chor uthā-yene di-yā ölen, dö ing di-khē cought-having his hand caught; I said-to-him, 'thief him went, and I ām togām sene-bā?' Di-gon ĩ-yā khūp tāpān dā-yen. Ing urag-aten hākwā thou where goest?' Him-with my heavy wrestling became. I house-from shoutsĩ-yā jāpāy diwā hē-en. Detog-en Vithōbā dikkū Sītārām dō dā-yen. Then wifethosecame. lamp Vithōbā and Sītārām made. ĩni kōrō urāg-ā tālā-n sakadī kōlā-khē; tālā-n urāg-ā lāp-khē chain unfastened; these men house-of middle-in house-of middle-in lightedmērā-n dō-khē; manoya ini chōr-ā hē-en, ĩyen jōr hē-en. Mē-ten five strength came, this thief-of near8aw; me-in came. rupyā molā tākhā-dān. Dī ĩ-yā aphē Dī khando khando wat-ken. Those mine were. threerupees worth Those pieces pieces came-out. khubdī mērā gāthī-n-kē tākhā. Dī gāthī iātī mērā jāpāy-ā tākhā-dān ; That bundle millnear pots near bundle-in 28. wife-of were: dij-ā ţī māl sen-dun. Ālē āph-kör jādā dō-ken. Inē-ten hand his We three-men This-from more property went-not. was-put.

5 A S

ďi māndi Pētēl-khē Detogen petel-a mērā-n sā-ya-n-e(ch'). Mēten tole-kho. brought-him. Then thatPatēl-to bound. Then Patel-of near Mēten pētēl chaukīdār-ā tī-n chor-khē i-khin-ē(ch'). Bidī-phajer ghāl-len-ē. Morning-time Then Patel Chaukidar-of hand-in thief gave-him. told. dij-ā Bārśī-Tākalī idi-khēn-ē(ch'). $\mathbf{Ch\bar{o}r}$ tonē-kā gāw-ā polis stēśan-en Barsi-Takli sent-him. Thief whichvillage-of hisstation-in police gāw-ā bāng. Diwā lā-lāb-ā āntin āngār-kādī jumu ing bāng dhādē. Dī ālē not know. He our village-of lighting for not. LampDi-āntin diwā ing lāb-du-kā. Di-khento popā-kā mērā-n chōr dō-ken. wot-khen. That-time hole-of near thief Therefore lamp I lighted-not. rubbed. saw. Dhip-ten popā-ten körö ōt-bā. Kacheri-n sā-lē badā muskul-ten Wall-from hole-from man great difficulty-from comes-out. Court-in brought khilā dī khilā-ten dhīpī-khē popā-khē. Dī îyen popā-kā mērā-n andhuli spike that spike-with wall-to hole-made. That me-to hole-of jagā-n ghatā-ken. room-in found-was.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

I declare upon my oath, that on a Friday night, about a fortnight ago, I was sleeping with my wife and my two children. About midnight my wife roused me and said that she heard a sound of jars in the house, and that she also heard a man moving about. She therefore asked me to get up. I did so and looked at the wall. I saw a hole and concluded that some one had broken into the house. There was no lamp burning, and I therefore took a match-box from under my bed and lighted a match. I saw this thief close to the hole and I seized his hand and asked what he was about. He began to struggle with me and I raised a cry. Then Sītārām and Vithōbā came. My wife had now lighted the lamp and unfastened the chain of the door, and the men entered. I got courage and examined the thief. I found five pieces of cloth, worth three rupees. They belong to me, and had been kept in a bundle belonging to my wife, in a pot near the flour mill. I did not find anything more. We three bound his hands and brought him to the Patel, and informed him of the matter. He handed the thief over to the Chaukidar, and the following morning he was sent to the police station at Barsi Takli. I do not know the thief's name and village. He is not of our village. I rubbed a match in order to light the lamp, and then I saw the thief. I did not, therefore. light the lamp. The hole in the wall had been made with the iron spike which has been produced in court. I found it in the bath-room near the hole.

[No. 38.]

MUŅDĀ FAMILY.

KŪRKŪ.

SPECIMEN IV.

(DISTRICT HOSHANGABAD.)

THE KING AND THE FOUR PRISONERS.

rājā jahal-khānā din dōdō ō-lan. Uphon kor-kū ō-lan. One day king prison seeing went. Four men work-on went. ētā sāmhnē tigan-kanē Rājā an kumorā-baj-jā, 'kēwdā chōj-ā ō-lan?' King them before-himself placed andasking-is, 'prison what-for went?' māṇdī, 'mahārāj, Miyā kaidī khōt kām dai-dun. Kūr-kū lawar gawāī prisoner said, Sir, evildeed did-not. Menfalsewitness ing-khē pasāting-nī.' bhartigā Bār-pā kaidī an māndī-wā, 'adāwa-tan entangled.' Secondbore prisoner says, 'enmity-from kaidō wachō-khanē.' Aphyā kaidī māndī-wā, 'ing dusaryā badlyā uthā-in.' Third prisoner ·I prison came.' says, other-of instead was-caught.' Aph kor-kū chhuttī arā-kē-kū. Rājā aph kor-kū jawāb i-dun, leave wanted-they. King three men answer gave-not, and fourth kumorā-achhur-en, 'am chova ŏ-lan kaidam?' Kaidi mandi-kan, 'apnā prison?' to-ask-turned, why wentestPrisonersaid, 'your chādyā rupyā thēlā churuw-en.' Rājā jahal-darogā hukm wāynē, inī-chā stole. King jailor order gave, new money purse his handouffs pāp mākī-arā-kē̃. Jhūthā māṇdī-dun-ē ētā badāting-nū.' said-not then fault leave-set-free. Falseincreased-not.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

One day a king went to see the prison, and he saw four men going to work, He had them put before him and asked them why they had come into prison. The first said, 'I have not committed any fault, I was sentenced on false evidence.' The second said 'I came into prison through the intrigues of my enemies.' The third said, 'I was caught for another.' All the three wanted to be set free. The king did not return any answer, but asked the fourth why he had come into prison. He said that he had stolen his purse of money. The king then ordered the jailor to release him, because he had not increased his fault by telling lies.

MUWĀSĪ DIALECT.

A considerable number of the Kūrkūs of Chhindwara have been returned under the head of Muwāsī. There are also Muwāsīs in Hoshangabad, where they live in the Nerbudda valley about Bairi and Punghat. The Hoshangabad Muwāsīs have given up their native tongue and claim to be Rajputs. In Chhindwara, on the other hand, they speak Kūrkū. The number of speakers as estimated for this Survey was 4,000. At the last Census, of 1901, 6,412 speakers were returned.

The Muwasi dialect is almost identical with ordinary Kūrkū. The vocabulary sometimes differs, and the Aryan element is stronger than in the purest Kūrkū. In most other respects, however, the dialect is the same.

The tendency to cerebralise dental sounds does not appear to exist. Compare $d\bar{\imath}$, he; $d\bar{a}$ -khe, did.

An a is commonly used in suffixes where most Kūrkū dialects have e. Thus, $m\bar{a}i$ tan, from the property; din-an, in a day; do-wan, saw. The same is also the case in the Kūrkū of Hoshangabad. There are no traces of the semi-consonants in the specimen. Compare however writings such as $ch\bar{o}i$, i.e. $ch\bar{o}ch'$, what? goi and $g\bar{o}j\bar{o}$, to die, etc.

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is mainly regular. The plural is, however, very commonly used instead of the dual, and we even find $b\bar{a}r-k\bar{u}$, two. Forms such as $b\bar{a}-san$, to the father, are due to Aryan influence. $Abu-\bar{a}$, his, is perhaps derived from $\bar{a}pn\bar{a}$. $\bar{A}p\bar{e}$, you, is also used in the meaning of 'thou' and 'thou and he.'

The conjugation of verbs is almost the same as in the Kūrkū of Hoshangabad. The suffix of the present and future is $w\bar{a}$. It is apparently also used in the past tense; thus, $m\bar{a}ndi$ - $w\bar{a}$, said. This form is, however, identical with $m\bar{a}ndi$ -wan, said.

The verb substantive is $k\bar{a}$, past dan. The form $takh\bar{a}ne$, is, should be compared with Santālī $tah\bar{a}$ -kan-a, was.

The only point in which Muwāsī really differs from Kūrkū is in the formation of the negative verb. Forms such as $ba\dot{n} \cdot kh\bar{a}ne$, I am not, are also found in ordinary Kūrkū. In most cases, however, the negative verb is formed by adding $len \cdot k\bar{a}$ or $lan \cdot k\bar{a}$ to the base. Thus, $i \cdot len \cdot k\bar{a}$, gavest not; $se \cdot lan \cdot k\bar{a}$, did not go. It seems probable that the len of $len \cdot k\bar{a}$ is the Dravidian negative illa, to which the verb substantive $k\bar{a}$ is added. If this explanation is the right one, we can perhaps infer that Kūrkū dun is also a Dravidian loan. Compare Kōlāmī $t\bar{o}ten$, and $tod\bar{s}$ in the Dravidian Bhīlī of Berar.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

MUNDA FAMILY.

KŪRKŪ.

MUWASI DIALECT.

(DISTRICT CHHINDWARA.)

gaņdā dā-ken. Nand-tan dī sānī gandā abu-ā Miyã dhoke bārī Them-from that hissons were. smallOne man-of twoĩ-yā āṭā ta-khāne, in-khan illī.' 'māl-tan bā-san māndi-wā, 'he bā, 'O father, property-from my share me-to give.' is, said, father-to Mē-tan dī kōrō dī-khū-kan abu-ā kāthin-khē. Thōrēkā din-an sānī māl hisproperty divided. Few days-in small Then that man them-to des-khen lā-yan, dēn judā-yan no dusrā nogandā abu-ā sab māl all property collected and other country-to went, and there hissondā-khe. Mē-tan dī sab barbād kharāb chāl-tan māl abu-ā all whatever made. Then he behaviour-with wasted his property evilbarā kāl bachō-kan, nō dī kangali-yan barbād dā-khe mē-tan dī dēsun and he wretched-became fell,wasted made then that country-in big famine kōr-kū mērān dumā-aṭaiy-yan, nō dī kōrō dī-khan abu-ā dēsun dī to-stay-begán, and that man and he that country-in men near kōrō khūb raṅgai-yan kī sukrī chārā kheti-n sukarī chā-chārā kul-khe. \mathbf{Di} That man much hungered that swine food sent.field-in swine to-feed jojumuā-nāyane tiyār huā. Mē-tan dī kōrō-kan iyē-kā jojum-ā-nāyane ī-len-kā. that man-to anyone eating-for And ready was. Mē-tan dī abu-ā hōsan haiy-yan nō māndi-wā, 'ĩ-yā bā-tē mērān 'my father near how-many men his sense-in came andsaid, And he āṭā ghatā-wā, nō ing rangai-tan dī-kū-khan achhā-tarahāse ki ta-khāne and I hunger-from is-got. breadenough them-to that No di abu-a manan mandi-wa ki, 'ing ĩ-ya ba-te meran sene-wa gōjō-utaiyan.' that, 'I my father near his mind-in saidAnd he ām-ā samman nō Parmesur samman āpē bār-kū-kā nō māndi-wā ki, "hē bā, and shall-say that, "O father, thee-of before and God before tālān ing pāp dā-khe, no ing ām-ā gaṇḍā māndi lāykhū ban-khāne. In-khan Menot-am. son to-say worthy \boldsymbol{I} thydid, andbetween I sin miya majuron hisab-an dumā-dhā-wā."' No dī iddā māndi-wā abu-ā bā mērān his father near saidto-stay-make." ' And he so likelā-yan. Mē-tan dī galle atā dan, mē-tan dīyā bā-tē dō-wan nō sarūb-an nō dī mulākāt ran and he meeting And he very far was, and his father saw and went.bā-san māndi-wā ki, 'ing ām-ā samman nō Parmesur dī gandā dā-wan, nō that, 'I thee-of before and made, and that saidson father-to

samman pāp dā-khe, nō ām-ā gaṇḍā māndi lāykhū baṅ-khāne.' Mē-tan bā abu-ā did, and thy son to-say worthy not-am.' And father his naukaron-tan māndi-wā ki, 'achhā angā sā-lī no di-khan uri-kē. Chhallā divā that, 'good robe bring and him-to put. saidRingti-yan uri-kē nō diyā jangan penhaī uri-kē. An-then achhī-tarah-sē jojumuā hand-on put and his foot-on shoe put.And good-way-in shall-eat and achchī-sukhī-wan. Ĩ-yā gaṇḍā goi-an dan, mētan dī bileri-yan; dī ad-jan dan, well-happy-shall-be. My son dead was, and he alive-became; he lost was, nō mē-tan dī ghatā-yan.' No dī-khā bahot khusī-wan. and then he was-found.' And they much happy-were.

Inhī bakhat diyā bare kon-tē khēti-n dan. Mē-tan dī urā mērān hai-wan, This time hisbigson field-in was. And he house near mē-tan di-khan siringā āwāj diyā lutūr-an hai-wan. Diyā miyā naukar-khan him-to music-of sound his came. ear-in Hisonehākoi nō māndi-wā, 'inī chōi bāt ōy?' Dī naukar māndi-wan ki, 'ām-ā 'this what matter is?' That servant called and said. saidthat, 'thy dādā hai-wan, nō ām-ā bā mējwānī dā-khe, mē-tan dī di-khan small brother came, and thy father feastmade, andhim changāpan ghatā-wan.' Mē-tan di-khan gussā ā-yin nō dī bhītrā se-lan-kā. found.' Andhim-to anger came and he inside went-not. Diyā bā-tē bākran haikkan nō di-khan āyal-tan māndi-wā. Mē-tan dī His father outside cameand him-to entreaty-with spoke. And heabu-ā bā-san māndi-wā, 'hē bā, āpē sēwā itnā din dā-yē, nō ām-ā his father-to said, 'O father, thy service so-many days did, and hukum utal-lan-ka. Mē-tan apē miya sērī pilla in-khan ĩ-yā dōstō songan broke-not. Andyouone goat young me-to my friends huñjū-nāyane i-lan-kā. Mē-tan āpē dī gaņdā hajewā, mē-tan āval playing-for gavest-not. And your thatsoncomes, thenyou great mējwānī dā-khe, ki mē-tan āpē sab dhan japāy-kū songan udāo-ke.' made, feast that then your all wealth women withsquandered. Divā $b\bar{a}$ māndiwan ki, 'jo-kuchh ĩ-yā mērān ta-khāne, so ām-ā-kā His father saidthat, 'whatever mynear that thine wē. Ambū-khan inhī bakhat khusī-manāti-an, mē-tin ām-ā disānī Us-to this is. timemerry-should-make, that-for that small thydādā goi-an dan, so ghatā-yan; dī ad-jan-dan, so ghatā-yan.' dead was, he was-found; he lost-was, he found-was.'

NAHĀLĪ.

The Nahāls are mentioned in old documents as hill robbers. According to the Nimar Settlement Report, "Nahal, Bheel, Kolee" is the phrase generally used in old documents for hill plunderers, who are also all included in the term "Mowassee." The Raja of Jeetgurh and Mohkote has a long account in his genealogy of a treacherous massacre by his ancestor, in the time of Akbar, of a whole tribe of these Nahals, in reward for which he got Jeetgurh in Jageer. Indeed they seem to have been inveterate caterans, whom nothing but extermination could put down. They do not now exist as a tribe, but only in scattered families, who are mostly in the position of hereditary village watchmen.

According to the same authority the Nahāls then, in 1870, spoke Kūrkū. It is probable that this is still the case with many Nahāls. Others, however, use a mixed form of speech, which will be dealt with in what follows. This latter dialect is the so-called Nahālī, i.e., the language of the Nahāls. It is spoken by the Nahāls of Nimar, but no information is available as to the number of speakers, the Nahāls having been included under the head of Kūrkū in the local estimates and in the last Census reports.

Nahālī is different from the Nāharī dialect of Kanker, which is a broken Halabī, and also from Naharī, a Bhīl dialect of Nasik and Sargana. Like both, however, it is strongly Aryanised, and probably on its way towards becoming an Aryan form of speech. The base of the dialect is probably a Muṇḍā language of the same kind as Kūrkū. Then there is an admixture of Dravidian, and finally an Aryan superstructure. It is of interest to note that Nahālī is spoken in a part of the country in which remnants of Muṇḍā and Aryan tribes still meet each other. To the north and west we find a continuous chain of dialects, viz., the various Bhīl dialects, which are now Aryan but are spoken by tribes who must have been of the same stock as the Nahāls.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Nahālī have been received from Nimar and will be reproduced below. They are the basis for the remarks which follow, and which do not make any pretension to completeness.

Nouns.—There is apparently no grammatical gender and no dual. The usual plural suffix is $t\bar{a}$; thus, $\bar{a}b\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, fathers.

There is apparently great confusion in the use of the various case suffixes. $K\bar{e}$ or $k\bar{\imath}$ apparently corresponds to ken in Kürkü and denotes the dative and the locative. Thus, $\bar{a}b\bar{a}-k\bar{e}$, to the father; $k\bar{e}$, in the field.

The suffix kun corresponds to Hindī $s\bar{e}$, from, to; thus, $m\bar{a}l$ -kun, from the property; $h\bar{a}l$ -kun, to the servants (he said).

The genitive is formed by adding one of the suffixes $k\bar{e}$, $k\bar{u}$, n, $n\bar{e}$, and $k\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}nchu-k\bar{e}$, of a man; $\bar{a}b\bar{a}-n$ and $\bar{a}b\bar{a}-k\bar{u}$, of the father; $dhol-k\bar{a}$, of drums.

The case of the agent is apparently formed by adding n or $n\bar{e}$; thus, $b\bar{a}churan$, by the younger; $\bar{a}b\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, by the father. The use of the case of the agent, and the suffixes by means of which it is formed, are distinctly Aryan.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that $ir\bar{a}$, two; motho, three; $n\bar{a}lo$, four, are Dravidian. $Bid\bar{i}$, one, perhaps corresponds to

Kherwārī mit', one. Compare Khassi wei, wi, one. Sir George Campbell gives bi, one, from the Lakadong Khassi dialect. The remaining numerals are Aryan.

Pronouns.—The pronoun jo, I, is peculiar to the dialect. *Ingē*, and in, my, seem to be Muṇḍā forms. $N\bar{e}$, thou, on the other hand, is Dravidian. The final $m\bar{a}$ in $hundar-k\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, preparedst, on the other hand, looks like the suffixed form of the Muṇḍā pronoun of the second person. Other pronouns are ho, $hoytar\bar{e}$, $\bar{e}tar\bar{e}$, he; iti, hoiti, that; $ibnij\bar{i}$, own; $n\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ and $n\bar{e}n\bar{i}$, who? $n\bar{a}nko$, what?

Verbs.—The verb substantive is $k\bar{a}$ as in Kūrkū. In the third person $tank\bar{e}$ is recorded. It is perhaps the same word as Santālī $tah\bar{a}$ -kan. The past is given as o, third person $\bar{e}th\bar{e}$. In the specimen, however, we find $t\bar{a}$, was, were. The distinction between the first and second persons on the one side and the third on the other is probably artificial.

The **present tense** of finite verbs is formed by adding $g\bar{a}$; thus, $ugh\bar{a}i\dot{n}-g\bar{a}$, lives; $kotte-g\bar{a}$ and $kotto-g\bar{a}$, strikes. Instead of $g\bar{a}$ we also find $k\bar{a}$; thus, $j\bar{e}r\bar{e}-k\bar{a}$, it is got. Compare also $tan-k\bar{e}$, he is. Compare Kūrkū $k\bar{a}$, is.

A present definite is formed by adding $k\bar{a}din\bar{\imath}$ or $k\bar{e}din\bar{\imath}$; thus, $kotto-k\bar{a}din\bar{\imath}$, I am beating; $char\bar{a}w-k\bar{e}din\bar{\imath}$, he is grazing. This form is, however, also used as a past; thus, $chain-k\bar{e}din\bar{\imath}$, they made merry.

The **future** seems to be identical with the present. The suffix $g\bar{a}$ or $k\bar{a}$ also occurs as $g\bar{e}n$ or $k\bar{e}n$. Thus, $\bar{e}r$ - $g\bar{a}$, I shall go; $ko\underline{t}to$ - $k\bar{e}n$ - $k\bar{a}$ and kohatu- $k\bar{e}n$, will strike; $t\bar{e}$ - $\bar{e}k\bar{e}n$, we shall eat; $ug\bar{a}i\dot{n}$ - $g\bar{e}n$, we shall become. Note also $k\bar{a}yn\bar{e}k\bar{e}$, I shall say.

The **past time** is expressed by means of several suffixes. In the case of transitive verbs there is a tendency to introduce the passive or impersonal construction usual in Aryan languages. Thus, $hoytar\bar{e}$ -n dhan- $m\bar{a}l$ $at\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, him-by property was divided. The suffix $y\bar{a}$ in $kam\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, was done; $at\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, was divided, is perhaps also Aryan.

The most common suffixes of past time are as follows:-

 \bar{E} or $\bar{\imath}$ is used in forms such as $t\bar{e}$ - \bar{e} , ate; $p\bar{a}t$ - $\bar{\imath}$, came; $m\bar{a}nd\bar{\imath}$, said. It is apparently identical with Kūrkū \ddot{a} , en. If this suffix originally ended in n, it is perhaps identical with nu or $n\bar{\imath}$ in $k\bar{a}i$ -nu, $k\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, said. Compare the common n suffix in Bhīlī and Khāndēśī.

A suffix jan or $j\bar{a}$ occurs in $na\bar{n}-g\bar{a}y-jan$, he became destitute; $khij\bar{\imath}-j\bar{a}$, he got angry, and so forth. It seems to have a passive or intransitive force. Compare Kūrkū en, jen and jan, Muṇdārī jan and yan.

A k suffix is used in forms such as $ud\bar{a}tin-k\bar{a}$, spent; $char-k\bar{e}$, came; $tok-k\bar{\imath}$, kissed. Similar forms are common in Kūrkū and other Mundā dialects.

Other forms with the meaning of a past tense are $t\bar{e}$ -gadā, they were eating; $harp\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{a}$, he was lost; $t\bar{a}kog\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he was filling; $bettir\bar{\imath}$, he had died; $\bar{a}dir\bar{\imath}$, he reached; $gh\bar{a}t\bar{a}j\bar{e}r\bar{a}$, he was found; $kottoj\bar{e}r\bar{e}$, I had beaten, and so forth. Note also $hund\bar{a}r$ - $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, preparedst.

The imperative is formed by adding the suffixes \bar{e} or $k\bar{e}$; thus, $\bar{e}r$ - \bar{e} , go; $b\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{e}$, give. $P\bar{e}h\bar{e}n\bar{a}ti\dot{n}$ - $k\bar{a}$, put on, looks like a future. Note the reduplicated form $b\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{e}$, give.

The various tenses are apparently also used as participles. Compare $g\bar{o}l\bar{a}ya$, having collected; $h\bar{e}r\bar{e}$, spending; $ch\bar{e}r-g\bar{e}$, running; $p\bar{a}t-k\bar{e}din\bar{\imath}$, while coming; $be\bar{\imath}-k\bar{e}$, having arisen (Santālī $beret'-ka-t\bar{a}$); $ud\bar{a}tin-k\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, when he had spent, and so forth.

Verbal nouns are *chain-kā*, to make merry; *chādāk-kē*, in order to tend; $m\bar{a}nd\bar{i}-ang$, to say.

The **negative particles** are $b\bar{e}$, $b\bar{e}t\bar{a}$, $b\bar{e}t\bar{e}$, and $b\bar{o}t\bar{e}$; thus, $b\bar{e}ko$, no; $b\bar{e}t\bar{a}-b\bar{e}$, did not give; $b\bar{e}t\bar{e}-b\bar{e}t\bar{e}$, I am not; $b\bar{o}t\bar{e}-j\bar{v}r\bar{e}$, did not pass. In $n\bar{a}nkatarb\bar{o}tb\bar{e}$, didst not give, the negative particle is probably $b\bar{o}t$, and $n\bar{a}nkatar$ perhaps means 'any even.'

The preceding remarks will have shown the peculiar character of the dialect. It gives the impression of a mechanical mixture of Mundā, Dravidian, and Aryan elements. The same impression is left by the vocabulary which contains words belonging to all three families, and also some which cannot with certainty be identified.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 242 and ff. Both have been printed as I have got them.

[No. 40.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

NAHĀLĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT NIMAR.)

tā. Hoytarē-tā-kun bāchura-n ābā-kē Bidī mānchu-kī īr lānā Them-from the-younger-by father-to One man-to sons were. two ingē hichchā indē mā.' Bhātē kāynū, 'yē ābā, awal mäl-kun give.' goodshare me-to Then it-was-said, O father, property-from my hingē Ghane din dhan-māl atāyā. hote-jire hoytarên hoytarē wealth was-divided. Many dayshim-by them his became-not golaya bhāgā dech-kī yēdē, bāchē-gitā sab dhan-māl-na hātikovērī having-collected distant country-to allwent, there young-son property ibnijē hoytarên āndphand-kī din hērē dhan udātinkā. Bhātē $him \cdot by$ riotously days spending his-own property was-spent. Then kāl charkē, hoytarên sab udātinkā-mā itī dēch-kē hoytarē nangāyhim-by spent-in thatcountry-in famine came, hedestitutehoitī mäntäminär-kē bidī mānchu-kē dēch-kē jan. Bhātē ho awār-kē country-in inhabitants-in became. Then hethatone man-of house-in khēt-kī chogumtā chādāk·kē ugāyangā. Hoytarē pūrī. Itan jogomta swine lived. Hefield-in grazing-for sent. Which swine tēgadā ētlān chhēngā-kē ēngē popo, agan-ka tākogātā. **E**tarēn those husks-with . hisbelly fire to-satisfy-wanted. eating-were Him-to nānikā nānkā bētābē. Bhātē ëtarë-kē akal pātī do ētarē kāinī. 'ēngē Then him-to sense came and anyone anything not gave. said, 'my popo-chēn ghanē chhokdān ābā-kū ghanē hāl-kun jērē-kā, chāt-kū father-of many servants-to belly-from muchfoodgot-is, hunger-of bēī-kē ēngē ābā-thā-kē er-gā ētarē-kē kāynēkē, "ē bēto-gā. I arisen-having my father-near shall-go him-to shall-say, "O die. father. joo Bhagwan-bihot-chhago nē ābā sāmnē pāp-karm kamāyā. Jo nē before God-against and father sinthypālīśorongā māṇḍī-rang jāgā bēṭē hēlē. Jo nē bhāgyārango-kī bidī okībē."' worthy not Me thy servants-among one consider." sonsay-to am.Bhātē ētarē ēngā ābā-thākē ērkēdinē. Hoytarē dhāwā-kīdā bī ētarē father-near far-was Then arising he hiswent. He his ābā-nē aräyē-ku ērīdkā kīwu pāddī, chērgē tuī do tokkī. having-been father-by was-felt, having-run wentembracedpity and kissed. hoytarên mandî, 'ē jo Bhagwan-bihot-chhago do ābā, ābā sāmnē him-to said, 'O father, I God-against Son andfather before pāp-karm kamāyā. Bhātē io nē pālīśorongā māndī-rang jāgā bētē-hēlē. sin did.Then Ι thy to-say son worthy not-am.

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naukar-hungo kāinī, 'sabī-kun awalkā kuprā phēr-kē Do ābā apnā 'all-from servants-to said, goodcloth taking-out father And his bāko-kē mūndī do khudī-nē khāwdē urībē. ētarēn ·étarē-kē pēhēnā-tinkā, hand-on ring and feet-on shoeshis put. dress, him-to bēttīrī harpīdā pālichho jīwatā, majā ugāingēn. Ingē Jo tēēkēn dead-was lives, lost-was will-be. Myson We will-eat merry chain-kedinī. Bhāṭē hoytarē ghātājīrā.' they merry made. Then found-is.'

bhāgā bēţā khēt-kī Pāt-kēdinī āwār-barī ādirī hoytarē tā. Etaren Coming $\cdot reached$ house-to Hiseldersonfield-in was. bhāngyāmijār-kū Etaren chālang chiknī. ētarē do chanānā dhol-kā heard. Him-byhisservants-of drums-of and dance-of sound'nān-kādinī?' Hoytarē kādinī, ulāchhī bichāwē, bidarī-nā mirā-kī asked, 'what-is-going-on?' Henear was-called one-to pātī, nēn ābā-rē awal-kā chhokdā hundārē, itarē-kē awalkā dāyarē prepared, himgoodfoodcame, thy father goodyounger-brother hēdjā. Itarē-ghāljā ētarē awalijā.' Etarē khijījā bhītar-kē bētē inside went. Therefore hisfather not found.' Hegot-angry ' arābē, kāinī, bāharē-kē pātī ētarēn manojē. Etaren ēngā ābā-nē hisfather-to it-was-said, ' see, him entreated. Him-by out came jo nē māņdī hotānēkā. ninė chākarī kamāyā, io himwat warso nayou was-done. saidservice did, andwhatso-many years thynānkatar-hōt-bē dēśo-bhãi Nē hingan-bārē mēṇdhān pālīchho hingē friends-with Thou me-to sheep-of young any-not-gavest mysagā-nīkā pāt hiyēngī rāndī-mundīnā paisā tē-ē inē chain-gā. $N\bar{e}$ atecoming all-of might-feast. Andwhoharlots-with money heĀbā-nē 'ē pālīchho, ingē awalkā khānā hundar-kā-mā.' māndī, nē The-father-by it-was-said, son, thoume foodpreparedst. goodchainkā maujkā ibnijī bī nē-kā. Nē ugāijā, mērēpā, jo Thou to-feast to-make-merry was-fit, what my-own thine-is. near-art, ghātājīrā.' jīwatā; jo harpidā, irkēnē $n\bar{e}$ bāśīgītā bēţţīrī, brother dead-was, lives; who lost-was, was-found.' because thy

KHARIĀ.

Khariā is the dialect of a cultivating tribe in Chota Nagpur. The number of speakers is about 80,000.

Khariā is properly the name of the tribe, and not of the language. We do not know the original meaning of the word. It is possible that it has something to do with the common word for 'man' in the Mundā languages, Santālī $h\tilde{a}r$, Kūrkū $k\bar{o}r\bar{o}$. We are not, however, in a position to settle the question.

The Khariās are found over a wide tract of country, from Bankura in the east to the Chhattisgarh Feudatory States in the west. They are divided into several sub-tribes, and are mainly cultivators. We do not know anything with certainty about their origin and old wanderings.

Many Khariās have abandoned their original language for some Aryan or Dravidian form of speech. The territory within which Khariā is spoken does not, therefore, coincide with the home of the tribe.

The stronghold of the Khariā language is the south-western corner of Ranchi and the adjoining portions of Jashpur and Gangpur. Speakers are also scattered over Udaipur, Raigarh, and Sarangarh. The Khariās of the Orissa Tributary States, of Bonai and Sambalpur, and probably also those in Bamra, Rairakhol, and Patna, speak Kurukh. Those living in Manbhum and Bankura speak a corrupt Bengali, and those in Sarguja Chhattīsgarhī. The members of the tribe living in the Sarguja State, however, are able to translate some words into Mundārī which they apparently consider as their old home-tongue.

Some of the Khariās of the Jashpur State have been returned under the head of Bīrhār, i.e., 'wood-men.' Their language is, however, Khariā, and Bīrhār is probably the name given to them by their Mundā neighbours. Their own word for 'man' is lebu as in Khariā.

Khariā is a dying language, and it is probably very corrupt in those districts where it is only spoken by very few individuals. In Ranchi, Jashpur, Raigarh, and Sarangarh, the dialect is everywhere the same.

Number of speakers. The number of speakers has been estimated as follows for the purposes of this Survey:—

A.—Spoken at home—

PORCH GO HOM										
BENGAL PRESIDEN	CY-									
Bankura .								156		
Ranchi .			• .					68,321		
Jashpur State								2,500		
Udaipur State								79		
							_		•	
						Tor	AL BE	NGAL		71,056
CENTRAL PROVINCE	s—									
Sarangarh				•	•					496
							To	TAL		71,552
							200			. 2,002

B.-Spoken abroad-

SAM—								222	
Darrang .	•	•	•		•		•	200	
Lakhimpur		•	•				•	420	
									10
							TOTAL		620
					GR	AND	TOTAL	•	72,172

Of the 2,500 speakers enumerated in the Jashpur State, 500 were reported to speak Birhâr. See above. The 156 Kharias in Bankura have now abandoned their native tongue and speak a corrupt Bengali. This fact escaped notice when the Bengali section of the Survey was carried through the press, and the figures have therefore been shown in this place. No speakers were returned from Raigarh.

The corresponding returns at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:—

BENGAL PRESIDE	NCY-											
Bankura										224		
Hooghly										135		
Jalpaiguri										3,779		
Darjeeling									•,	137		
Rangpur										1		
Bogra .										210		
Sonthal Par	ganas									8	-	
Angul and E	Chond	mals								17		
Ranchi .										49,784		
Singbhum										330		
Kuch Bihar										1		
Chota Nagpu	ır Tri	butary	Sta	tes	•					23,798		
						,	TOTAL.	BENG	AL PRI	ESIDENCY		78,424
							10144	22210				
CENTRAL PROVINC	ES-						LUIAL	2210		BBIBBIOI	•	. 0,1=1
CENTRAL PROVINCE Raigarh	es—										•	. 0,122
	Es-		:	:	:	:	:			1,758	·	,
Raigarh		•	:	:	:	:		:		1,758	•	. 0,122
Raigarh Sarangarh		:	:	:	:	:		:		1,758 1		
Raigarh Sarangarh Bamra		:	: : : : : :	:	:	:		:	:	1,758 1 238		
Raigarh Sarangarh Bamra Rairakhol		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1,758 1 238 124 41		
Raigarh Sarangarh Bamra Rairakhol Patna	•	cobars	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	:	:	:	:	:	1,758 1 238 124		2,162
Raigarh Sarangarh Bamra Rairakhol	•	cobars	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	: : :	:	:	:	:	:	1,758 1 238 124 41	•	2,162 1
Raigarh Sarangarh Bamra . Rairakhol Patna . Andamans an	•	cobars	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	:	:	:	:	CENT	PIRAL PI	1,758 1 238 124 41 		2,162 1 1,919
Raigarh Sarangarh Bamra . Rairakhol Patna . Andamans an	•	cobars	: : :	:	:	:	:	CENT	PIRAL PI	1,758 1 238 124 41		2,162 1

Some of the speakers in the Chota Nagpur Tributary States probably speak Kurukh and not Khariā. The same is probably the case with those returned from Bamra, Rairakhol, and Patna. The returns from the districts in the Bengal Presidency where no mention of Khariā was made in the local estimates should probably be shown under Bengali. No further information has, however, been available, and I have therefore simply reproduced the Census figures. I have only excluded the Khariās returned from the Orissa Tributary States, because they certainly speak Kurukh.

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CAMPBELL, SIE GEORGE,—The Ethnology of India. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxv, Part ii, 1866. Supplementary Number. Appendix F contains a Kherriah vocabulary, by Lieut.-Colonel Dalton, on pp. 266 & f.

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GAGAN CHANDRA BANERJEE, B.A., -Introduction to the Khariā Language. Calcutta, 1894.

Khariā grammar has all the characteristics of a language which is gradually dying out and being superseded by dialects of quite different families. The vocabulary is strongly Aryanised, and Aryan principles have pervaded the grammatical structure. Khariā is no longer a typical Muṇḍā language. It is like a palimpsest, the original writing on which can only be recognized with some difficulty.

A full account of the dialect has been given by Mr. Banerjee in the work quoted under authorities. It has been used for the remarks which follow, and it should be consulted for further details, though it is far from being satisfactory.

Pronunciation.—The semi-consonants are not consistently marked in any specimens, and I have only been able to restore them in a few places. Mr. DeSmet often marks them by means of a 'after the preceding vowel, and Mr. Banerjee by means of a 'above the vowel. Thus, o'o and \check{o} , a house. I have written ok'. The genitive is og-a, of a house. The change of the semi-consonant to g shows that, in this case, it is a k'. The same is the case with dak', written da, water, ablative daga-tei, and so on.

The semi-consonant ch' can be restored in words such as mi, i.e., mich', aunt; genitive mij-a; tai, tak' and taj, i.e., tach', distribute; orei, i.e., orech', a cow; lai, i.e., lach', a belly; goi', i.e. goch', die, and so forth.

The semi-consonant t' is probably sounded in words such as mod, or mond, i.e., mot', eye; moi, moyod, moing, mudu, one; betod' and betot, i.e., betot', hunger.

The semi-consonant p' is probably meant in words such as kundabn, kundam, or kunrab, back, and so forth.

It will be seen that Khariā uses these sounds in the same way as other Mundā dialects. They have also the same tendency to be changed to soft consonants or else to nasals, which we have observed in the case of the various dialects of Kherwārī. I have not, however, ventured to make any attempt at restoring them. They are marked in the Jashpur specimen, but in a very arbitrary and inconsistent fashion. I have therefore in this respect left the specimens as I have got them, and have only corrected obvious mistakes.

In many cases a k corresponds to an h in Kherwārī, as is also the case in Kūrkū, Juāng, etc. Thus, konon, Muṇḍārī hon, small; kondu, Muṇḍārī hon, child; kolong, Muṇḍārī holong, flour, and so forth. Kar, which occurs in pronouns such as u-kar, this person, is perhaps identical with Santālī har, a man.

Nouns.—Khariā has apparently given up the distinction between the animate and inanimate genders. There is, so far as I can see, only one gender, and there is no difference in the verb if the subject is inanimate. The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way. Thus, kota solo, a dog; kuti solo, a bitch; $s\tilde{a}r$, an ox; orech, a cow. This distinction, however, only concerns the vocabulary, and has nothing to do with grammar.

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There are three numbers as in Kherwārī, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the dual is $kij\bar{a}r$, $kiy\bar{a}r$, or $j\bar{a}r$, and that of the plural is ki. It is evident that the dual suffix is formed from the plural suffix by adding $\bar{a}r$. Ki is the old dual suffix.

Case.—Khariā has abandoned the Mundā practice of expressing the cases of the direct and the indirect object in the verb. It has therefore become necessary to indicate those cases by adding postpositions to the noun. We have already seen how a similar tendency has begun to make itself felt in some forms of Kherwārī. It is due to the influence of Aryan and Dravidian vernaculars.

The usual case suffixes in Khariā are:-

te, for the accusative, dative, and locative; tei, for the ablative;

 \bar{a} , for the genitive.

Thus, lebu-te, the man; to the man; in the man; lebu-tei or lebu-ā-tei, from the man, or from the man's. The accusative suffix is often dropped; thus, timsaig ol-e, bring fire.

The genitive suffix \bar{a} is often written ak' in the Jashpur specimens. It is identical with Muṇḍārī ak'. Double genitives such as abagak', of the father, also occur. Mr. DeSmet also gives an accusative and dative suffix ge; thus, aba-ge, to the father. It is probably the Kurukh postposition $g\bar{e}$.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not change for gender, number, or case. Comparison is expressed by putting the compared noun in the ablative. Thus, $\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}dhro\text{-}te\bar{i}$ $m\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ $\tilde{a}\hat{i}$, father child-from great is, the father is greater than the child.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that the first six correspond to those in use in other Mundā dialects. The numerals for 'seven,' 'eight,' and 'nine', on the other hand, correspond to Savara gul-ji, seven; tam-ji, eight; tiñ-ji, nine. Compare the remarks in the introduction to this volume, pp. 12 and 24 above.

The higher numerals are counted in twenties as in other Munda languages.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

				. Dt	nal.	Plural.		
		-	Singular.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	
1st person			ing	iñjār	ānāng	ele	āning	
2nd person	•	-	am		ambār, amār	. ::	ampe	

The form $\bar{a}n\bar{a}ng$, thou and I, corresponds to Kherwārī $\bar{a}lang$; and ele, they and I, to Kherwārī $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$. $\bar{A}ning$, you and I, corresponds to the inclusive dual $\bar{a}ling$, thou and I, in Kherwārī. $I\tilde{n}j\bar{a}r$, he and I, is formed by adding the usual dual suffix $j\bar{a}r$. $Amb\bar{a}r$ or $am\bar{a}r$, you two, is apparently formed from am, thou, by adding the numeral $b\bar{a}r$, two. It is therefore possible that Mr. Banerjee is right in explaining the dual suffix $j\bar{a}r$ as derived from $b\bar{a}r$. The initial b of this word is an old prefix, and does not belong to the base.

The pronouns are inflected like nouns; thus, $ing-\bar{a}$ or $i\tilde{n}-\bar{a}$, my; $am-\bar{a}$ and $am\bar{a}g-\bar{a}$, thy; $amp\bar{a}$, your; and so on. In Jashpur we find forms such as $i\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$, my; and in the Sarangarh specimens $iy\tilde{a}$ is written for $i\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$, i.e., $i\tilde{n}ak'$.

For the third person the pronoun adi or ari, he, she, is used. The corresponding dual is $ar-kiy\bar{a}r$, and the plural ar-ki. Adi is apparently a Dravidian loan-word. Compare Telugu $v\bar{a}du$, he; Kurukh adi, she.

Pronominal suffixes are used with verbs in order to denote the person of the subject. They are as follows:—

Person.			Dus	il.	Plural.			
	rerso	on.		Singular.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.
First				ing	jār	nā i g	le	ning
Second				m		$b\bar{a}r$		pe
Third	•			i.	· kiār		ki, me, mai	

The pronominal suffix is very commonly dropped in the third person singular. Mr. Banerjee mentions a suffix \breve{x} for the first person, and a suffix p' for the second person singular which he says are added to the o of past tenses. Thus, ol-o, brought; $ol\breve{x}$, I brought; olop', thou broughtest. I have not found any such forms in the specimens.

Pronominal suffixes are also used after nouns of relationship. They are *ing* and *nāing* for the first; *nom* for the second; and *dom* for the third person. Thus, *māing* or *mānāing*, my mother; *mānom*, thy mother; *mādom*, his, or her, mother; *elā āp nāing*, our father, and so forth. In the Jashpur specimens we find *rom* instead of *dom*. The *du* in *kundu*, son, is probably another form of *dom*.

There are no pronominal infixes.

The demonstrative pronouns are u, this; ho, that; han, that far off. They are used as adjectives. In Jashpur we also find hin and $h\tilde{e}$, this, and in Sarangarh ye, this. Demonstrative nouns are formed by adding je to the demonstrative bases for animate and inanimate objects, and kar for persons. Kar is probably the same word as Santālī $h\tilde{a}r$, a man. Thus, u-je i lebu heke, this which man is? han-je io-e, that see; u-kar, this person. The dual and plural of u-kar are u- $kiy\bar{a}r$, u-ki, respectively.

The interrogative pronouns are ber, who? ata, which? i, what? Thus, am ber heke-m, who art thou? ata po'da-te au-ta-m, in what village do you live? i daru-ā, of what tree?

Ber usually remains unchanged in the dual and the plural. In the dual we sometimes find ber-jār or ber-ār for the first; ber-hār for the second; and ber-kiār for the third person. Thus, amār ber-hār heke-bār, who are you two? Ber apparently corresponds to Gōṇḍī bōr, who? The Gōṇḍī bōr is also inflected in person. Compare the remarks under the head of Gōṇḍī on pp. 483 and ff. below.

Verbs.—In the conjugation of verbs Khariā has been much influenced by its Aryan and Dravidian neighbours. The direct and indirect objects are no longer expressed in the verb; there is no particle which changes the base of a certain tense to a finite tense, and the pronominal suffixes are usually added to the verb. Moreover, the language is no longer able to distinguish between the various stages of verbal action with the same precision as in the case of Kherwārī. Khariā conjugation is, therefore, much simpler and more in accordance with Aryan principles.

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Person.—The person of the subject is expressed by adding the pronominal suffixes mentioned above. They are often dropped when the subject is a personal pronoun. Final e and i of verbal tenses are dropped before the i of the first person. Thus, ole, shall bring; ol-ing, I shall bring. The final o of past tenses is, however, retained; thus, olo-ing, I brought. There are two suffixes of the third person plural, viz, ki and me or mai. Me or mai is used after tenses formed by adding the suffixes si, ke or ki; in the imperative; and in the present tense of $ao-n\bar{a}$, to be. Ki is used in all other cases.

Voice.—The passive voice is formed by adding dom to the base. Thus, jore-dom-ki, he was joined. Instead of dom we find jom in io-jom-tā, it is seen; pig-jom-tā, it is broken, and so forth. The base of such verbs probably ends in ch'; compare pij-e, break; pij-si, he has broken. The original passive suffix accordingly appears to be om which can perhaps be compared with Kherwārī ok'.

Tenses.—The bases of the various tenses sometimes differ in transitive and intransitive verbs. The passive voice, in such cases, is inflected like an intransitive.

The future and indefinite present is formed by adding e in transitive, and $n\bar{a}$ in intransitive verbs. Thus, ole, he will bring; oling, I shall bring; gil-dom- $n\bar{a}$ -ing, I am struck. The suffix $n\bar{a}$ is perhaps connected with the en in Muṇḍārī abung-en-a-ing, I wash myself.

The definite present is formed by adding $t\bar{a}$ or te; thus, ol-ting, I bring; ol-te-ki, or ol- $t\bar{a}$ -ki, they bring. The suffix $t\bar{a}$ corresponds to Mundārī tan.

The simple past is formed by adding o in transitive and ki in intransitive verbs; thus, ol-o, brought; chol-ki, went; chol-ki-mai, they went. Before o a d becomes th, and in some other cases a chh or kh is inserted. Thus, god, an intensive auxiliary, past gotho; soi, i.e. soch, learn, past sochho; $rem\bar{a}$, call, past remakho, and so on. It is probable that the base in such cases ends in a semi-consonant. Compare Santālī $g\acute{a}t'$, quickly, with the intensive verb god.

The suffix o is perhaps connected with the suffixes et' and at' in Kherwārī; ki probably corresponds to Mundārī ken.

The perfect is formed by adding si, which often becomes sid before the pronominal suffixes of the first and second persons; thus, ol-sid-ing, I have brought; chol-si-mai, they have gone. Si is probably derived from sit. It seems to be an auxiliary and is perhaps connected with Santālī sit, to be finished; thus, jam-sit-kea-a-ko, eat-finished-they, they ate up all.

The si which is added in the perfect has a transitive past sikho and an intransitive past siki, which are added to the base in order to form a pluperfect. Thus, ol-si-kho-ing, I had brought; del-si-king, I had come.

The **imperative** is formed like the future; thus, ol-e, bring; $dam-n\bar{a}$, come. In the third person gudu is added; thus, ol-gudu, let him bring; $ol-gudu-ki\bar{a}r$, let them two bring; ol-gudu-mai, let them bring; dam-gudu, let him come. Other forms are supplied from the future.

The **verbal noun** is formed by adding $n\bar{a}$; thus, $ol-n\bar{a}$, to bring. Note $cho-n\bar{a}$, to go; $de-n\bar{a}$, to come, from the bases chol and del; $lemen-n\bar{a}$, to sleep, from the base lemed, and so on.

The simple or reduplicated base is used as a past relative participle; thus, $ing-\bar{a}$ soing-soing romkub, my bought rice; doko-doko lebu, sitting men. The base of the

present tense is similarly used as an adjective; thus, tomling-tā gai, a milk-giving cow-

There are no conjunctive participles. As is also common in Kurukh, the Khariās say adi uje ol-o oro chol-ki, he this brought and went, having brought this he went, and so on.

Auxiliary verbs and verb substantive.—The simplest form of the verb substantive is ke or ki. Thus, o-ki Khariā-ge-ki-mai, they are Khariās. Compare Santālī kan. By adding this ki to hoi-nā, to become, we get the common verb hek-ing, I am.

The present tense of au-nā, to be, is formed as follows:—

Person	Singular.	Du	al.	Plural.		
		Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	
First	āj-ing	āi-nāṅg	āi-jār	āi-ning	āi-le	
Second	āj-em	āi-bār		āi-pe		
Third	āĩ, āj-e		$ar{a}$ i-ki $ar{a}$ r	2	āi-māi, āi-m	

The base is apparently ach'; compare the pronoun ach', self, in Kherwārī. The past tense is regular; thus, au-king, I was.

Several auxiliaries are often added to the base, apparently without changing the meaning. Such auxiliary verbs are god (imperative gore, past gotho); kan, san, tu, and kai. Thus, ter-gor-e, give, goch'-god-ki, he died; ol-kan-nā, to bring; chol-san-ki, he went, and so on.

Causatives are formed by prefixing ab, o, or the first vowel of a word, or else by inserting an infix b. Thus, ab-goch', to cause to die, to kill; o-gur and u-gur, to cause to fall; $dibs\bar{a}$, to make distant $(dis\bar{a})$, and so forth.

A prefix a is used in a similar way in Kherwārī and Kūrkū. Compare above pp. 39 and 172.

Ne gative verb.—The negative particle is om, to which the pronominal suffixes can be added. Thus, ing om(-ing) ol-e, I did not bring. The negative particle with imperatives is ābu; thus, ābu ol-e, don't bring. There is a separate negative verb substantive ambodij-ing, or ārij-ing, I am not.

Interrogative particle.—An interrogative particle nu is sometimes used in the same way as in Dravidian languages. Thus, am ol-ta-m nu, art thou bringing? songol olna chol-ki-mai nombo, have they gone to fetch firewood or not?

For further details Mr. Banerjee's grammar should be consulted.

KHAŖIĀ SKELETON GRAMMAR.

KHAŖIĀ SKELE

I.-NOUNS .- Lebu, man.

					1	1 : 1					
Nom.					Acc. and Dative.	Ablative.	Genitive.	Locative.			
Sing.				lebu	lebu-te	lebu-ā-tei	lebu-ā	lebu-te			
Dual .				lebu-kijār	lebu-kijār-te	lebu-kijār-ā-tei	lebu-kijār-ā	lebu-kijār-te			
Plur.				lebu-ki	lebu-ki-te	lebu-k i -ā-tei	lebu-ki-ā	lebu-ki-te			

Postpositions.— $b\bar{a}ng$, with, from ; \bar{a} -te, near ; $th\bar{a}m$, for the sake of, etc.

II.—PRONOUNS.—Ing I; am, thou; adi, he, she.

				D	ual.	Plu	ıral.	
			Singular.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	
		_						
1st p	erson							
Nom.			ing	iñjār	ā-nāṅg	ele	ā-ning	
Gen			iṅg-ā	iñjār-ā	ā-nāng-ā	el-ā	ā-niṅg-ā	
Suffix .			iñg	jār	nāṅg .	le	ning	
						1	1	
2nd p	erson							
Nom.			am .		$am(b)\bar{a}r$		ampe	
Gen		,	am-ā		am(b)ār-ā		amp-ā	
Suffix .			m		$b\bar{a}r$		pe	
		1						
3rd pe	erson	į						
Nom	•		a di	aŗ-kiyār		aṛ-ki		
Gen			$a\dot{q}i$ - $ar{a}$	aṛ-kiyār-ā		aṛ-ki-ā		
Suffix .			i	kiyār		ki		

Demonstrative pronouns.—u, this; ho, that; han, that far off; u-kar, this person; u-kiyār, these two persons; u-xi, these persons; u-je, this person or thing. Similarly ho-kar, ho-je, han-kar, han-je, etc.

Interrogative pronouns.—ber, who? ata, which? i, what? aje, which?

TON GRAMMAR.

III .- VERBS. A.-Verb substantive.-au-nā, to be; hoi-nā, to be.

			P	RESENT.	PRESENT	NEGATIVE.	
		I.	II.	I.	II.	Past.	
Sing.		•	he-king	āj-ing	amboḍi-j-ing	ari-j-ing	au-king
	2	•	he-kem	ājem	ambodi-j-em	ari-j-em	au-kim
	3		he-ke	āĩ, āj-i	ambodī	äri	au-ki
Dual	1 ex	el.	he-ke-jār	āi-jār	ambodi-jār	ari-jār	au-ki-jār
	1 inc	el	he-ke-nāng	āi-nāng	ambodi-nāng	ari-nāng	au-ki-nāng
	2		he - ke - $bar{a}r$	āi-bār	ambodi-bār	ari-bar	au-ki-bār
	3	•	he-ke-kiār	āi-kiār	ambodi-kiār	āŗi-kiār	au-ki-kiār
Plura	l 1 ex	ol.	he-ke-le	āi-le	amboḍi-le	äri-le	au-ki-le
	1 in	cl.	he- ke - $ning$	āi-ning	ambodi-ning	ari-ning	au-ki-ning
	2		he-ke-pe	āi-pe	ambodi-pe	ãṛi-pe	au-ki-pe
	3	•	he-ke-mai, he-ke-me	āi-mai, etc.	ambodi-mai, etc.	ãṛi-mai, etc.	au-ki-mai, e

Hoi-ki, was, is conjugated as au-ki.

B.—Finite	Verbol-nā,	to bring;	cho-nā,	to	go.
-----------	------------	-----------	---------	----	-----

]	Future.	Present.		Past.	Perfect.
Sing.	1	. •	-	oling	cho-nā-iṅg	ol-ting	ol-o-ing	chol-king	chol-sid-ing
	2			ole-m	cho-nām	ol-tām	ol-o-m	chol-kim	chol-sid-em
D1	3		-	ol-e	cho-nā	ol-tā	ol-o	chol-ki	chol-si
Dual	1 es	cel.		ole-jār	cho-nā-jār	ol-tā-jār	ol-o-jār	chol-ki-jār	chol-si-jār
	1 in	ıcl.		ole-nāṅg	cho-nā-nāṅg	ol-tā-nāṅg	ol-o-nāṅg	chol-ki-nāṅg	chol-si-nāng
	2		-	ole - $bar{a}r$	cho-nā-bār	ol-tā-bār	ol-o-bār	chol-ki-bār	chol-si-bār
Plura	3			ole-kiār	cho-nā-kiār	ol-tā-kiār	ol-o-kiār	chol-ki-kiār	chol-si-kiār
Fiura	1 ex	cel.		ole-le	cho-nā-le	ol-tā-le	ol-o-le	chol-ki-le	chol-si-le
	1 in	el.		ole-ning	cho-nā-ning	ol-tā-ning	ol-o-ning	chol-ki-ning	chol-si-ning
	2		-	ole-pe	cho-nā-pe	ol-tā-pe	ol-o-pe	chol-ki-pe	chol-si-pe
	3			ole-ki	cho-nā-ki	ol-tā-ki	ol-o-ki	chol-ki-mai	chol-si-mai

Chol-ting, I go, is conjugated as ol-ting. The ta of this tense is often replaced by te.

Imperfect.—ol-nā-lā-si-king, I was bringing, etc.
Pluperfect.—ol-si-kho-ing, I had brought, ; chol-si-king, I had gone, etc., as in the past.
Imperative.—ole, bring; ol-gudu, let him bring; ol-gudu-kiār, let them two bring; ol-gudu-mai, ol-gudu-me, let them bring; cho-nā, go; chol-gudu, let him go, etc. The first and second persons dual and plural are like the future.

Nogetive positiols are refer dealth. Negative particle .- om, not ; abu, don't.

Causative verb .- Formed by prefixing ab, o, or the first vowel of a verb: or else by infixing b. Thus, ab-io, cause to eat (io); o-sid, loose (sid, be lost); u-gur, cause to fall (gur); dibsa, make distant (disa).

Ol-sid-ing, I have brought, is conjugated as chol-sid-ing.

The three first specimens which follow generally agree with the grammatical sketch given in the preceding pages. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son from Ranchi, for which I am indebted to the Rev. J. M. DeSmet. I have printed it as I have got it. It generally uses dental sounds where other specimens have cerebrals. The second specimen is the deposition of a witness from the Jashpur State. It distinguishes between short and long vowels, and apparently marks the semiconsonants, though in a very arbitrary way. I have corrected obvious mistakes. The third specimen is the version of a well-known tale from Sarangarh. The beginning of a version of the Parable from Bankura will be added as a fourth specimen. It has no more anything to do with Kharia.

The dialect spoken in Raigarh, Gangpur, and Udaipur is apparently the same as in Jashpur and Ranchi. No specimens are, however, available, but I have made use of short vocabularies which, in all essential points, agree with the dialect described in the grammatical sketch.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases, prepared by the Rev. J. M. DeSmet, will be found on pp. 242 and ff. below.

[No. 41.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

КНАРІА.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. J.	M. DeSmet	, S.J., 18	98.)				(DISTRICT	RANCHI.)
Moi One		a bar		kundu'	au <i>wer</i> e	-ke-kiai e-theu-ti	r. 00.	Konon Small	kundu'
	-te gan s-to sai	1-0,	apa	$i\dot{n}$	kuing	k	hurji	in-te	ter-e.'
Ro Then	apo-dom father-his	tai-kai-	o(tach' divide	-kach'-o). Th	orek	to'te	konon	kundu'
all '	kaptifo gathered	and	der very	$_{far}$. Han		adi-a	khurji-te
$not ext{-}good$	kami-te works-in	all	was	ted.	$\mathcal{A}ll$	e	oasted		han that
country-i	ajgut n great	famine	6	urose		hi	m	to-hung	t'-la-ta. ger-began.
And	hol-ki on	id that	co	untry-of		m	an-with	staye	i, ro
his ñeo-te-ki	där-te field-in	him	sw	ine	gupa-na feed-to	8	ent.	And	bunu swine
	nusas-u	oong ad	88	very-er	en j	fill-to	to- w	ant-began	and.
any one	him-to	om-ma not-the	y	gave.	And	refle	cted	and	Said.
'father-m	-a o ny-of ho -ko	use-in u-te bet	how-n	nany	servant	s-of	much	brea	d is;
I-on-the-	other-hand ro,	here hun	ger-wi	th di	e-I.	Aris	e-will-1	, father	
go-wiii-1	and, karai-	Jather,"	sa	y-1,	" heave	en-of	and		f I
not- $good$	did,	her	rceforti	ħ	thy in-te	son			worthy
not-am-		y serv	ant	like		put.	,,	And	
	father-his-ne			And	very	far	j j	apo-dom father-his	adi-te him

chumai-o. Bete-dom, kadukho ro dhae-chol-ki, ro ioi-o, ar andkissed. Son-his, and embracedandran-went; saw. karai-o; um-bes i'n firib-a am-a ro 'apa, gam-o, did ; not-good I thee-of father, said, ' heaven-of and Apo-dom um-bodej-ing.' leka kundu' gam-na lo'do am-a not-am. Father-his say-to worthy 80n henceforth thee-of unkuol-dabe-pe ro 'jari-a osel lutui konger-ki-te gam-o, clothtake-quickly-ye andput-onall-of white said, servants-to opsu-gore-pe, mudi kata-te juta ro ti-te \mathbf{ro} gore-pe, put-on-him-ye, hand-on feet-on shoes ring and and him-ye, de-goj-e-pe. Neo-ud-e-ning mo'to bachru-te ole-pe, ro ro Eat-drink-will-we cut-kill-ye. calfbring-ye, andfat and kundu' goch'-si-ki, ro borol-ki; iñ-a lere-na-ning: ro came-alive; died-had, and merry-will-be-we; son myand ñeo-kho-ki ud-tho-ki koi-ki.' Ro \mathbf{ro} ro sid-si-ki, drank-they andfound-was.' Andate-they andlost-was, lere-koi-ki-mai.

merry-made-danced-they.

del-ki ro o(k)' Rodãr-te au-ki. Maha kundu' field-in And cameand house was. son Bigkonger-te koi-ki-a ondor-o. R_0 moi along ro hepad-te servant dancers-of heard. And one and singers near 'konon Konger-ko, i-ta-ki? 'ho-ki jung-o. rembakh-o ro, asked. Servant-on-his-side, ' small ' those what-do-they?' called mo'to bachru-te adi-a del-si,' 'ap-nom gam-o, bhai-nom said, father-thy fat calf his come-has, brother-thy Maha kundu' koi-ki.' konon bhai-nom-te bes-ga det-si; gadn found. Bigwell son killed; smallbrother-thy sake-for mon-la'-ki. Apo-dom mu'-ki \mathbf{ro} diar-na omkhisai-ki ro wished. Father-his came-out andenter-to notandangry-got 'ioi-e-m, binti-apsif-o. Ho-kar apo-dom-te gam-o, i'n adi-te ' see-thou, father-his-to said, I himto-beseech-began. That-man ol-sid-ing, su'da-tai am-a i'n kamu ro am-a der carried-out-I. I work andthy thyyears-from many melai-si. Teo-bhi iñ-a sursango-bong kaiom-te om-in moi-o Yetfriends-with not-I forsook. my mord one-even ter-sid-em, merom kundu' in-te omU lere-na-gan moi gavest-thou. This me-to notyoung feasting-for one goat ñeo-pal-tui-o um-bes konsel-ki-bong ro del-si, kundu' am-a ate-wasted women-with and came, thy80n not-good dech'-o-m? mo'to bachru-te Apo-dom-ko tong-ga u-kar-a killedst? Father-his-on-his-side fat calfhissake-for-indeed

'е sab-din kundu', am-ko in-te-ga gam-o, au-ta-m, ro said, 0 son, thouall-days $me ext{-}with ext{-}indeed$ art,am-age-ke. Maha jari ñeo-na ro iñ-a lere hoi-ki; eatingthine-is. Bigfeasting attmine andbecame; goch'-si-ki, konon bhai-nom ro borol-ki; sid-si-ki, brother-thy died-had, smallandcame-alive; lost-had-been, andgadn.' koi-ki, ho-a found-was, this-of sake-for.'

2 . 2

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHAŖIĂ.

SPECIMEN II.

(STATE JASHPUR.)

DEPOSITION OF A WITNESS.

Ing somār-dino iñ-ã ankāl bak' chol-sikho-ing. sae-nā · Pok'dāg-ak' I Monday my fieldpaddycut-to went-I. Village-of munuk'sing-ting · iñ-ã goch'lok' āĩ. Iñ-ã goch'lok'-ak' utar rochho east-direction-in my fieldMyis. field-of north towards āri-ā goch'lok' āĩ. Hin-bok'-te āri ao-ki. Āri-ā sāngo-gā hisfield is. There he was. Him-of near bēt-rom-ki ao-ki-mai. Bēt-rom-ki bak' sae-nā lā-ki-mai. Burhā sons-his were. Sons-his paddy cut-to began. The-old-one moit' hiro-te doko-sikho. $\mathbf{H}\widetilde{\mathbf{e}}$ Māhkūr-gā dãr-tik-tai del-ki oneridge-on sat. This Mahkur field-direction-from came burhagak'-te. Mahkur burhāgak'-te. · u ankāl iñ-ã hēkē,' gam-o. Burhā old-one-to. Māhkūr old-one-near. ' this fieldmine is,' said.Old-one gam-o, 'sabū din-gā ele-gā kāmū-te-le; musā am-ā i-ghai hoe-ki ? said, 'all days we-indeed cultivate-we; to-day thine how became? Māhkūr moin dãrā dhok'-sikho. Ho dãrā mun-ga burhā-te $M\bar{a}hk\bar{u}r$ one stickheld. That stick one old-man gil-o tin chār dārā. Gil-nā-gil-nāg-ak' bēţ-rom-ki dhãestruck threefour sticks. Beating-beating-on sons-his randel-ki-mai, oro-gā Mähkür-te chundido dho-kho-ki ro ogur-o-ki. came, andMāhkūr top-knot seized andthrew-down. On-tai Māhkūr gul-karai-nā lak'ki, · toro-nā oro lak'-ki. This-after Māhkūr to-cry-loudly began, to-cry began. Gul-te õdro-ki-ro sagro toli-ā Māhkūr-ki dhāi-y-o-mē howete Cries heard-then allvillage-of Māhkūrs ran there jume-ki-mae. Moin körī guk'uk'n(sic.) Māhkūr ao-ki-mai. Hin-kejo gathered. One score about Mahkurs were. Thesedhok'te-dom-ki-mai, oro ao-ki-mai jē yār-o-mai. Pāch-jan were-caught, elsewere they escaped. Five-men madhē-gā murugā ñimi Hīrā ao-ki, oro murugā ñimi among one-of name $H\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}$ was, andone-of name Kesbo ao-ki, oro murugā ñimi Lagnū aoki, oro murugā Kesbo was, and one-of name $Lagn\bar{u}$ was, and one-of

пimi	Karmū	ao-ki,	oro	mu	rugā	ñim	i Chandro	ao-k	i. Oro
name	$Karmar{u}$	was,	and	one	-of	name	e Chandro	was	. Other
oro	ao-ki-m	ai, hin-ki	-ā	ñimi		\mathbf{um}	kong-te-le.	Hum	ne-te-gā
$\cdot other$	were,	them-	of .	names		not	know-we.	This-n	nuch-only
yok'yo-le	. Iñ-ã	ñimi	Band	hu.	$\bar{\mathbf{A}}_{\mathbf{I}}$	pā-iñ-ã	ñimi	Phim ū	ao-ki.
saw-we.	My	name	Band	hu.	Fath	er-my-of	name	$Dh\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}$	was.
${f El}ar{f a}$	jāt	Khariā.	Kast	urā-te		ao-tā-le.	Khētī-bā	rī	karāe-kēr
Our	caste	Khariā.	Kast	ura-in		live-we.	Cultivati	on	doing-by
/borol-tā-l	e.								
live-we.									

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Last Monday I went to my field to cut rice. My field is to the east of the village, and his field is to the north of mine. He was there with his sons, and the sons began to cut rice while the old one was sitting on a hedge. This Māhkūr came from the fields to the old one and said, 'this is my field.' Said the old one, 'we have always cultivated it. How did it become thine to-day.' The Māhkūr had a stick in his hand, and struck the old man three or four blows. Thereupon the sons came running, caught the Māhkūr by the top-knot and threw him down. Then the Māhkūr began to cry out loudly. On hearing his cries all the Māhkūrs of the village ran up and collected there. There were about one score Māhkūrs. We caught these here, but the rest escaped. The names of these five are Hīrā, Kesbo, Lagnū, Karmū and Chandro. I do not know the names of the rest who were there. I only saw this much. My name is Bandhu, and my father's name was Phīmū. We are Khariās and live in Kastura. We are cultivators.

[No. 43.]

en .i.-n -cimi)

MUNDA FAMILY.

KHAŖIĀ.

SPECIMEN III.

(STATE SARANGARH.)

A POPULAR TALE.

$\mathbf{M}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{\tilde{n}}$	j (i.e. mut')			jughai	i bēṭā	ao-ki-mai	. Hin
	One	old .	man-of	seve r a	l sons	were.	These
2000	āpas-te	jhāŗi	dino	lare-		k'-ki-mai.	$ar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{p}ar{\mathbf{a}}$
sons	self-among	all	days	quarre	l-to	began.	Father
hin-ki-te	khūb	samjhāy-o	, je-ku	chhu	kām	um ter-o.	Hin-kar
them	much	admonishe	d, an	y .	result	not gave.	This-man
lotho	ari-ā bed	l-dom-ki-te	hukum	ter-o	ol-na	i gām-o	āri-ā
at-last	his	sons-to	order	gave	bring-	to said	his
bō-te	muñj	bojhā	songol, ro	o ta	b huki	ım ter-o	hin-ki-te
presence-i	n one	bundle	sticks, an	d the	en ord	er gave	them-to
muñj-mu	ñj achha	pāŗam	kar-ke	e pie	ch'-nā-thai	m jahã	uje.
one-one	good	strength	making	g br	eaking-for	each(?	it.
	pichho-ki,	jē-kuch	hu kām				
$m{All}$	broke,	any			gave,	because	sticks
	tol-dom-si		oio	hin-ki-	te pie	ch'-nā-tham	muñi
closely	tied	•	and	them		break-to	one
lebu-ā	pāṛam-ā		bhara			Lodho	āpā
man's		for		sible-was	s. A	fterwards	father
	kāi(i.e.	•	am hul	kum	ter-o	oro m	uni-muni
bundle	100	intie-to	or		gave .		one-one
songol		ni-muni			r-o, hi	n bere-gā	uje
stick	his o		sons-his-t	o go	we, the	is $time$	this
pich'-nā-t					m-ki-te		siddho
break-to		r gave.			his-for		easily
pij-got-ke		āpā	gam-o,	'hāy	bēd-dom	-ko, mui	ij-hināgā
broke.		father	said,	· 0	sons		nity-of
pāṛam	•	Inā-tham	ughai-ga	i ām	ipe i	mitānī-te	nichat
force	<i>see-ye.</i>		thus	y_{0}	n fr	iendship-in	firmly
metipate		āmpe-te	bair-jo	dukh	um te	er-o. Pher	jab
together	are,	you	enemies	harm	not g	ive. But	when

kolej-bong quarrels-by	$ar{ ext{ampe}}$	alag-go-nā-pe divided-become	ampā your	bairī-te	āmpe you
tumorte-par	e-na-pe?				3000
overnowered-w	ill-be-you?				

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A certain old man had several sons, who were always quarrelling among themselves. He tried to remonstrate with them, but in vain. At last he ordered his sons to bring a bundle of sticks before him. He then gave the bundle to each of them in his turn and asked them to use all their strength and break the bundle. They all tried, but in vain, because the sticks were tied very closely together, and it was beyond a single man's power to break them. Then the father asked them to untie the bundle and gave each son one stick, and asked them to break them. They now did so without difficulty. Said the father, 'behold the strength of unity. If you will live together in friendship your enemies will be unable to harm you. But if you quarrel and are disunited, you will fall a prey to your enemies.'

[No. 44.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHARIĀ.

SPECIMEN IV.

(DISTRICT BANKURA.)

	Ek One	nõl man(·of)	rahinā was	duiți two	buā. sons.	Dui Two	janar men-of	maha among	saru small
buā	bı	unitanāg	aya,	0	bābā,	ghorkan		je	mui .	bhāg
son		said,		'O	father,	property	y-of	which	I	share
pāma get		mohor <i>mine</i>	hai that	de.' give.'	Ihālē Then	ōhar	bābā			ari
dinā.		1100100		gove.	1 16616	his	fathe	r shares	naving	g-made
gave.										

It has already been remarked that some of the speakers of Khariā in the Jashpur State have been returned under the head of Bīrhār. I subjoin the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the so-called Bīrhār of the State. It will be seen that it is the same form of speech as that illustrated in Specimen II above.

[No. 45.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

KHARIĀ.

SO-CALLED BIRHAR DIALECT.

(STATE JASHPUR.)

Mudu lebu-ā ubār kundu ach'-ki. Konon bēt-rom āp-rom-te gām-o, man-of two sonsSmallson-his father-his-to said.e appā, māl-jāl je sagre āij-e iñ-ā batā ing-te ole.' En-tai-ko 'O father, property which all. myshare me-to give.' Thereafter āri-y-ā jinā-te ār-ki-te tach'-gotho. Oro thorko dino um bite-ki ro property them-to divided. And few days not passedthen konon bēṭ-rom mitik'tegak' kāptikh-o oro dher disā muluk chol-ki; oro son-his smallallcollected and very far country went; and ā-tik' san-ki, hin-tigyā jhāki dhan-te urāe-gotho. where went, thereallproperty squandered.

JUĀNG OR PATUĀ.

Juang is the dialect of a Munda tribe in the Orissa Tributary States. It is spoken by about 10,000 individuals.

The word juang means 'man' in the dialect, and the denomination Juang as the

Name of the Language.

Name of the Language.

Name of the Language.

Name of the Language.

Name of a language is accordingly of the same kind as Hō,

Kūrkū and so on. The tribe is also called Patuā, from their

women's habit of dressing in leaves.

The home of the Juaigs are the Dhenkanal and Keonjhar States. Some speakers are also found in the neighbouring tracts of Morbhanj and Pal Lahera. The Juaig territory forms an islet within the Oriyā area, and that latter language has largely influenced Juaig and will probably in the course of time supersede it.

Number of speakers.

The number of speakers was estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

Dhenkanal State.

Keonjhar State.

Morbhanj State.

Pal Lahera State.

The number of speakers was estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

7,250

5,673

2,345

Pal Lahera State.

Total . 15,697

Four thousand five hundred and ninety-one speakers in Dhenkanal and 17 in Morbhanj have been returned under the head of Patuā.

At the last Census of 1901, 10,853 speakers were returned, 10,795 of whom were found in the Orissa Tributary States. The corresponding figure for the Juang and Patua tribes in the States was 12,474. Almost the whole tribe, accordingly, still retains its native tongue.

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CAMPBELL, SIE GEORGE,—The Ethnology of India. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxv, Part ii, 1866, Supplementary Number. Appendix F contains a vocabulary of Putoons or Juang, by Lieut.-Col. Dalton.

[Lyall, (Sir) A.,]—Report of the Ethnological Committee on Papers laid before them, and upon examination of specimens of aboriginal tribes brought to the Jubbulpore Exhibition of 1866-67. Nagpore, 1868. Part iii contains a Juang vocabulary on pp. 8 & ff.

Dalton, E. T.,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Juanga Vocabulary by Rakhal Das Haldar.

Campbell, Sir George,—Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1872, pp. 79 & ff.

The Juang dialect is of the same kind as Khariā. It has abandoned the most prominent Mundā characteristics, and its inflexional system is more closely in accordance with Aryan principles than is the case with the Mundā languages proper.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the Dhenkanal State. They are not sufficient for giving a full account of the dialect. They are, however, the only basis available for the remarks which follow. **Pronunciation.**—It is not possible to form a clear idea of Juang pronunciation from the materials available. A final short a is apparently sounded. Compare Oriyā. Words such as $kath\bar{a}-ra$, a tale, are, however, also written $kath\bar{a}r$. The short a is often also pronounced as the a in 'all.' I have not, however, been able to decide if that is the case more than in a few words.

I cannot find any indication of the existence of semi-consonants. The word $\tilde{a}iy\bar{a}$, his own, is probably connected with Santālī ach', self. The future abhaj-e, I shall strike compared with abhoi-sor, struck, seems to show that the base is abhoch'. Such words apparently point to the conclusion that the semi-consonants do form a feature of this, as of other Mundā dialects.

As in Khariā a k corresponds in some words to an k in Kherwārī. I have only noted koni, son, corresponding to Santālī, Muṇdārī, etc., hon.

Nouns.—There are several suffixes in use after nouns the meaning of which I cannot ascertain. A suffix ra or r occurs in words such as iti and iti-ra, hand; $jot\bar{a}$ -ra, shoes; dipe-ra, lamp; buyi-ra, mother; $kath\bar{a}$ -ra and $kath\bar{a}$ -r, tale. It appears to add definiteness; compare Chhattīsgarhī har.

A suffix nge is used in words such as koni-nge, son; kunu-ninge, son; bui-nge, mother. It is possible that this suffix is originally the suffixed pronoun of the first person. It is however used in a general way without reference to the first person, and it can also be compared with the Kui suffix anju. Compare abanji, father.

A suffix de is used in a similar way in words such as iti-de, the belly; ijin- $d\bar{a}$ -te, on his feet. It seems to be connected with Santālī tak, or else to be the pronominal suffix of the third person. Compare Khariā du.

The suffix de is often added to a suffix m. Thus, boko-m-de, thy elder brother; $buin-ma-d\bar{a}$, of the mother; koni-m-de, the son; $kona-ma-d\bar{a}$; of the son; dhan-um-de, the property. The suffix m is used alone in words such as boba-m-te, to the father. It should probably be compared with the pronominal suffix m of the second person in connected forms of speech.

All such suffixes are used in an arbitrary way, and if the explanation given above is correct, their original meaning has been forgotten.

There are no traces of the distinction between an animate and an inanimate gender.

The dual is not used in the specimens. The suffix of the plural is ki as in Khariā. It is often preceded by an r. Thus, loka, a man; loka-r-ki, men: $ju\bar{a}ng-de$, a woman; $ju\bar{a}ng-da-r-ki$, women; ghodi, a mare; ghodi-r-ki, mares. Compare the suffix ra or r mentioned above.

The usual case suffixes are, dative, te; thus, boba-m-te, to the father: ablative, ta, tai; thus, bobam-ki-ta, from fathers; ne-tai, from here: genitive, \bar{a} , ra, r; thus, $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}$ -y- \bar{a} , of the father; bobam- $d\bar{a}$, of thy father; dhani-ra, of the rich man; $bob\bar{a}r$ -ki-r, of fathers: locative ra, re; thus, $g\bar{a}\bar{u}$ -ra, in the village; kati-re, near.

All these suffixes are well known from connected forms of speech. The genitive suffix r is probably derived from ra. Compare also Oriyā ra.

The ablative is, as in other connected forms of speech, used to denote the compared noun in comparisons. Thus, $\bar{a}r$ boka-rar-ta $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}r$ at $j\bar{a}lhing$, his sister-from brother much high, his brother is taller than his sister.

JUĀNG. 211

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They are Aryan loanwords. Besides, however, the old Munda words for 'one' and 'two' are also used, viz, min, mui, and $mi\tilde{a}$, one; ban, two. Higher numbers are counted in twenties.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

āin, āinje, I.	ām-de, āman-de, thou.	ār, airi, āuri, he.
āin-ā, āin-jā, my.	$\bar{a}m$ - $\bar{q}\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}man$ - $\bar{q}\bar{a}$, thy.	$\bar{a}r$ - \bar{a} , $\tilde{a}i$ - \bar{a} , his.
niñ-je, neiñje, we.	hare, you.	$\bar{a}r$ - ki , they.
neiñjā, our.	harā, your.	$\bar{a}r$ - $k\bar{a}$, their.

I have not found any traces of the dual pronouns or of the double plural of the first person. In addition to hare, you, $\bar{a}pere$ is recorded from Keonjhar. $\bar{A}r$, he, should be compared with Khariā adi, and probably also with Kurukh $\bar{a}r$, they. Other forms are $\bar{a}inche$, to me, $\bar{a}r$ -te, to him, etc.

It will be seen that the suffixes $\tilde{n}je$, de, and ri correspond to those mentioned above when dealing with nouns.

Pronominal suffixes and infixes do not appear to be used. Some traces of them have already been mentioned. M, n, and h are sometimes prefixed to verbal tenses in order to indicate that the subject is of the second person singular, the first person plural, and the second person plural, respectively. They are probably derived from pronominal suffixes added to the word immediately preceding the verb. Compare the remarks under the head of Verbs, below.

The interrogative pronouns are adi, who? biri, what?

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is of the same kind as in Khariā. I cannot find any traces of the categorical a, of the pronominal infixes, or of the rich variety of forms found in other Mundā languages.

Thus, 'I go' is āin hande. The same form of the verb is also used in the third person singular and dual. In the second person singular, on the other hand, an m is sometimes prefixed, and similarly n is prefixed in the first, and h in the second person plural. These prefixes are probably originally pronominal suffixes added to the word preceding the verb. Thus, āmde ma-hande, thou goest.

So far as I can judge from the scanty materials at my disposal the various tenses are formed as follows.

The future is formed by adding an e as in Khariā; thus, abhaj-e, I shall strike; $g\bar{a}t\bar{a}-e$, I shall say. Neuter verbs add $n\bar{a}$; thus, $jan\bar{a}mal-n\bar{a}$, it will be known.

The present is formed by adding the suffixes ke and de; thus, sara-ke, he is grazing; kaba-de, he is making. In abha-ke-ki, they strike, the pronominal suffix ki, they, is added. No similar instances occur in the specimens. Ke apparently corresponds to the copula ke in Khariā.

There are various suffixes denoting past time.

In the first place the suffixes e and $n\bar{a}$, which usually denote the future, are occasionally used to denote the past; thus, kib-e, thou madest; tonga- $n\bar{a}$, she stood; de- $n\bar{a}$, he came. They are probably not properly past tenses, but denote the indefinite time.

The most usual suffix is o or a, to which a y is prefixed after vowels. It probably corresponds to Khariā o. A nasal sound, commonly an n, is often added. Thus, an-o,

went; yo-y-o, saw, sab-a, seized; $g\bar{a}t\bar{a}-y-a$, said; $duhkhi-lai-\bar{a}n$, he became wretched; $ku-y-\bar{a}n$, found.

A suffix corresponding to Khariā si occurs in the forms sor, cher, and chede. Thus, āin abhoi-sor, I struck; han-cher, went; len-chede, I have walked.

The suffix se-ke, corresponding to Khariā si-ki, is used to denote the ordinary past. Thus, $g\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ -se-ke, said; jim-se-ke, I have eaten.

Other forms of the past tense are $nech-ed-\bar{a}$, he returned; leb-er-a, he slept; $p\bar{a}\bar{n}ch-er-a$, he devised; and so forth. They apparently contain a suffix corresponding to Santālī et. Budiyate, came to a close, is formed by adding ate. Compare the suffix $at\bar{a}$ in $B\bar{i}rh\bar{a}r$.

The imperative seems to be formed as in Khariā. Thus, dingi and ding, give; rue-nā, keep. A suffix de is used in forms such as hana-de, go; āsue-de, put on. Nikimā, let us make, seems to contain an imperative particle corresponding to Santālī ma.

Verbal nouns are *biśuā*, to fill; *gogađate*, to take off; *sarāyedaya*, in order to feed; *nabunre*, in order to feast. I cannot analyse all these forms. *Sarāyed-aya* is perhaps the past tense of a causative verb.

Participles.—A very common participle is formed by adding the suffix ja; thus, jimuja, eating; $sungiy\bar{a}ja$, smelling; anoja, going; $de\tilde{n}ja$, coming; $tongana\tilde{n}ja$, arising. It is commonly used as a conjunctive participle. Another suffix of that participle is apparently me; thus, $b\bar{a}jime$, eating; esidame, having been. Dhapat-i, running, is Oriyā. $D\tilde{e}$ - $d\tilde{e}$, coming, is the doubled base used as an adverbial participle, as is also the case in Khariā.

The negative particles are a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ and a suffixed je- $n\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ and, he did not go; $bh\bar{a}nge$ -je- $n\bar{a}$, I did not break.

The base of the verb substantive is āsi; thus, āsi-ke, am; āsi-ana, was; compare Oṛiyā āchhi. There is also a base id or ir; thus, ire, am, art, is, in Keonjhar, and several curious forms such as idame, am, is; ināin, art, etc., in the list of words.

The verb jim, to eat, is used as an auxiliary verb in order to form a passive. Thus, ainje mad jim-seke, I have eaten stripes, I am struck. Such forms are of course Aryan.

For further details the student is referred to the two specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second a popular tale. Both have been forwarded from the Dhenkanal State. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found below on pp. 243 and ff.

[No. 46.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

JUĀNG OR PATUĀ.

SPECIMEN I.

(DHENKANAL STATE.)

Mic	-gā jod	āmi ku	nu-niṅge	āsike.	$ar{ ext{Ar-}}ar{ ext{a}}$	luṅ-ā	sāna
One			sons	were.	Them-o		small
kunu-nii	ige bā	gātā-se	e-ke, 'e	bā,		dhan-um-de	bhāg-
son	fathe	r said	d, 'O	father,		property	_
bātāyān	āin-ch		E-tā	āyiri	ãi-yā	dhan-um-de	bhāg-
dividing	me- to	give.'	The	n he	own	property	0
bātāyān	ār-te	din-yo.	Beg	sāna	kununing	ge nikā	țhuliā-ya
dividing	him-to	gave.	Soon	small	son	all	collected
lenkā-bo	an-o,	āur	khechad	ā-kiba	\mathbf{nika}	dhan 1	ıdāi-miã.
far-to	went,	and	wicked- b	ecame	all p	roperty sq	uandered.
E-tā	āuri	gāũ-ra	bade	maharagh	ā-i≅,	ār duḥkhi	i-lāi-y-ān.
Then	that v	illage-in	heavy	famine	became,	he destitu	te-became.
\mathbf{E} -tā	ār an-c				g ã ĩyã-:		$ar{ ext{A}} ext{i-ra}$
Then	he wen	t that	village-	in one-	of house	in stayed.	That
min	ār-te gh	usuri p	olami s	arā-yeḍ-aya	a bila-ba	anāḍa-ya	Āur
one	him s	wine .	flock	to-herd	field- to	sent.	And
$\bar{\mathrm{ar}}\text{-te}$	āḍi	kichel		i di-ãi.		ghusuri-ra	tusha
him-to	any body	DIAMETER STATE				pigs'	husks
jimaja	1		•		hatā ār		
eating	*	to-fill			last he		thought,
gātā-ya,	'hā,	āiñ-ā	bābā-yã		a bulu		iti-de
said,	'alas,	my	-	_		ny men	belly
bishure.	Mātra-l					tangananja	bābā-yā
fill.	But	I	hungerin	ig-die.	I	arising	father's
hasara-te		gātā-e,				Parameśwar	
side-to	going	shall-say	, "0	father,		God	
kati-re	pāpo	kibān.	-			ain jugya	
side-at	sin	did.	Thy	80%	saying	I worthy	not.
$ar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{m}$ -dā	sebāsi	āin-che	ruye-nā.'		. •	tangananja	
Thy		me	keep."	' The		50 to 20 to	father-to
an-o.	Mātra-ka	ār-ā	bōbā			e yo-yo,	bikoloi-yā,
went.	But	his	father	very	far hin	n saw,	pitied,

puni dhapati ano. kunka saba, ār-te mumuja. Etā and running went, neck seized, him kissed. Then kāndā ār-te ٠e gātā-ya, bā, Parameśwar ām-dā kati-re pāpo sonhim-to said. 60 father, God's thyside-at sinkibā-n; ne-tā ām-dā kān-dā boli jugya jenā.' Mātra-ka ār-ā did; hence thyson saying worthy not. Buthisbobā chākaran-te gātā-ya, 'ār-te dia sende-rā āsu-yede; ār-ā father servants-to said, ' him-to goodclothput; hisiti-ra-te mudira āsuyede; ār-ā ijin-dā-te jotā-ra āsu-yede. Bhal hand-on ring put : his feet-on shoes put. Good chija bājime maujabā-kibe; kunu-ninge āiñjā bash-werā, barana; eating things let-us-make-merry; my son was-dead, lived; haje-sorān, ku-yā.' E-tā ār-ki khusi-basi nira-yā. was-found.' was-lost, Then theyto-feast began. Niñje ār-ā kuvā-kaninge bil-u āsike. Puni iyā-bo Then hiseldest-son field-in was. Againhouse-to den-den nāta-gobinda an-ya. Chākaran-te daku-ya gātā-ya, 'imiti coming dance-music heard. Servants calledsaid. thus be-te hāsike?' Ayiri gātā-ya, 'ām-dā bokom-de nechedā, puni why you-are?' Hesaid, 'thy younger-brother returned, again bobā-ra ām-dā ār-te diyara ku-yān, maujā kibade.' E-tā thy father himsafe-and-sound found, feast makes.' Then ār rāgo-yā ālun-ba $m\bar{a}$ ano. Ne-ta ār-ā bobā-ra bāvāhe got-angry inside-to not went. Therefore hisfather outsidesi-ke ār-te dumni gātā-ya. Mātra-ka āuri bobāyā-te gātā-ya, came him muchsaid. Buthefather-to said. 'yoyo, ām-dā gātā bhänge jenā, bahami dinayān ām-dā sebā see, thywordbroke not, many days-for thyservice kibān; jātipua nābun-re min mera ām-de din-din jenā. did; kinsmen to-feed one goat thou gavestnot. Ām-dā kuninge dāriyān ranān nikā dhan-um-de udāyayîã, ār Thysonharlots keeping allproperty wasted. he ār-te denā, mauja kibe? Ār-ā bobā-ra e e gātā-ya, kāndā, him-to came, feast madest? Hisfather 0 said, son, ām-de nityāni āiñ-ā āsayã māsike. Āiñ-ā dhan jetekāsi, always thou my near art. Myproperty whatever, ām-dā. Mātraka āiri bokum-de bash-wera, barana; haje-sorān. Butthine. this . brother-thy had-died, lived; was-lost. denā. Netā mauja ni-ki-mā.' Therefore came. feast we-shall-make.'

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

JUĀNG OR PATUĀ.

SPECIMEN II.

(DHENKANAL STATE.)

A POPULAR TALE.

Mu	ĩ g	āũ	miã	the	elā	lok		āsike.	3 =	, .
One	U	lage	one	ric		ma		was.	Ār-ā	
āsike.	Era	gāũ-ra		aka	lok				Him-of	
was.	That	village-i		eat	ma		āsike.	$ar{ ext{Ar}}$	thaka	dhana-ra
gogađate	man	are-kuyā.					was.			wealth-in
to-cheat		l-in-made.			man <i>min</i>		upā	•	pāñchera.	Dhanira
buya-te			ʻāmḍā				mea		devised.	Rich-man's
mother-t	0	id,			coning		m		Bel-t	
mora	sungiyā	•	-	,				nkard.	9	-in his
mouth	smellin		ekhame ilt-know	•,	Kon	imde	. 8		•	\mathbf{buinge}
bada	daāni	The contract of the			So			said,	$^{\circ}$ thy	mother
great	witch	as.	Imiți		uyira-l			lā-bo	bujhāia.	
			So		other-	-	801		explained	. At-last
day	budiyate.	100000000000000000000000000000000000000	_		ana-ra		bhābe	-	'buinmaḍā	
		Se			ind-in		•	ht,	9	tale
misin	janan	nalnā.'	Buyir	\mathbf{a}	bhābe	eya,	'kõ	namad	ā kathā	ra misin
to-day	10111-0e-	known.'							story	to-day
janāmal		Hachatā			е		āyi-ner		lebera.	$K\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$
will-be-k		At-last		son		simu	lating	-sleep	slept.	Son
dipara		gujira		Buy		d	henja	k	onam adā	bichchanā-
lamp		extinguis	hed.	Mot	her	comi	ng-slov		son-of	bedstead-
	tongan			boli		mane		kibaja		
near	stood	. Sl	ept	as		mind		naking		mouth
sungia.	Matral	ka ko	ninge	jān	ia,	'buy	vira .	daān	i boli,	āin-che
smelt.	But	δ	on	kne		· mot		witch	,	me
muãra	sungiya.	' Ahi	pari	buyi	ra-bo	k	on-ra-l	bo	kajiā	lageā-kiā.
mouth	smelt.'	T	ius				son-to		quarrel	
$\mathbf{Hachat}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$	imit	i buy	7 ira	katl	nār	gātā	ya	koņdā.		11
Then	thus	moth	er-of	stor	ry		i	-		
gātāya said	buyira- mother-	te, d	hanar	ţh	akeyā heatin		gogāi robbe	na.	, 33.00	8101 g

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In a certain village lived a rich man with his mother. There was also a cheat in the same village who wanted to trick him out of his money. He thought out a way of doing so, and one day he said to the rich man's mother, 'your son is a drunkard. You will be able to ascertain the fact by smelling his mouth at night.' To the son he said, 'your mother is a great witch.' So he told both of them. When the day drew towards its close the son thought, 'to-day I shall know the truth about my mother,' and the mother thought, 'to-day I shall know the truth about my son.' At last the son pretended to go to sleep, without having extinguished the lamp. The mother came slowly and stood near his bed. She thought that he was asleep and smelt his mouth. The son, on the other hand, was convinced that his mother was a witch since she smelt his mouth. Thus he bred discord between mother and son; and eventually tricked them out of their property by telling them tales about each other.

SAVARA.

Savara is the southernmost dialect of the Munda family, and it is spoken by about 150,000 individuals.

Savara, or rather Sawara, is the name of a cultivating and servile tribe of Orissa,

Chota Nagpur, Western Bengal, Madras, and the Central
Provinces. The Savars are usually identified with the
Sabaras of Vedic and Sanskrit literature, a wild forest tribe, who are supposed to be the
same as the Suari and Sabarae mentioned by Pliny and Ptolemy. One of the most famous
passages in the Rāmāyanā of Tulasī Dās deals with a meeting between Rām and a Sabara
with his wife.

The tribe is very widely spread at the present day. Their stronghold is the two northernmost districts of the Madras Presidency and the neighbouring districts of Bengal and the Central Provinces. Thus we find them largely spread over the Orissa division and the Orissa Tributary States, Singbhum, Sambalpur, Raipur, Bilaspur, Patna, Kalahandi, Sarangarh, Raigarh, and so on. Farther to the north they occur in Saugor and Damoh, and in former times they are said to have been settled in Shahabad. According to Mr. Risley, 'local tradition ascribes to the Savars the conquest of the Cheros, and their expulsion from the plateau of Shahabad, in about the year 421 of the Sáliváhana era, or A.D. 500. A number of ancient monuments in the Shahabad district are still put down to the Savars or Suirs, who are supposed to have been driven south by the inroad of Rájputs under the Bhojpur chief, which made an end of their rule.'

Most Savars have now become Hinduised, and speak Aryan forms of speech, generally Oriya. Mr. Driver remarks:—

'The purest representatives of the race call themselves Sobors, and speak a dialect of the Kolarian language which could be understood in Chutiya Nagpur. These people are only to be found in the most jungly parts of the Native States of Orissa and Sambalpur, and a few are also found in Gangpur.'

The so-called Sobors alluded to by Mr. Driver have not been returned as speaking a separate language at the last Census, and local information collected for the purposes of this Survey does not make any mention of the Savara dialect in those districts which are said to be the home of the Sobors. Mr. Driver publishes a short vocabulary which contains words from various sources, Aryan, Dravidian, and Mundā. The Sobors of Sambalpur probably speak Khariā, and those of the Orissa Tributary States some form of Kherwārī. Their dialect is no longer Savara. That latter form of speech is almost exclusively spoken in the hilly tracts of Ganjam and Vizagapatam. It is the prevailing language in the Ichchhapuram, Parlakimedi, and Sompeta taluks of the Ganjam Agency and, together with Telugu, in the Gunapur taluk of the Vizagapatam Agency. Elsewhere it is spoken side by side with other languages in the hills.

The Savaras are divided into several sub-tribes and are, accordingly, known under various names such as Sonds, Sowras, Jara Savaras, Luda Savaras, Arisa Savaras, and Tekkati Savaras. Their dialect, however, is everywhere the same.

Owing to its being spoken only in the Madras Presidency, the Savara dialect does not fall directly within the scope of the operations of this Survey, and no local estimates of the number of speakers are

therefore available.	At the Census of	1891, the number of speakers	was returned as
follows:-	24		

TO A	/9:—												
	Madras Presidency										•		101,638
	Central Provinces			•					•	•	•	•	401
,										To	TAL		102,039
1	The corresponding to	_	es at	the	last	Cens	us of	1901	L wei	e as	follo	ws :	-
	Ganjam .												40,448
	Ganjam Agency												68,689
	Vizagapatam												340
	Vizagapatam Ag	ency											47,623
	Central Provinces—											•	
	Chanda .	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•			3
										To	TAL		157,103

The grand total at the last Census was 157,136. The remaining 33 speakers are found in the Mysore State.

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Savara has been largely influenced by Telugu and is no longer an unmixed form of speech. It is most closely related to Khariā and Juāng, but in some characteristics differs from them and agrees with the various dialects of the language which has in this Survey been described under the denomination of Kherwārī.

The notes on Savara grammar which follow are based on the materials printed below. They do not pretend to be more than a mere sketch of the principal features of the dialect.

Pronunciation.—There are no indications in the specimens of the existence of semiconsonants. Such sounds are perhaps meant in mad, eye; to and tod, mouth; \bar{u} and $\bar{u}n$, hair; $d\bar{a}$ and $d\bar{a}n$, water, etc.

SAVARA. 219

In those cases in which an h in Kherwārī corresponds to a k in other Muṇḍā dialects, Savara perhaps agrees with the latter. Hodgson's $tan-g\bar{o}ra$, road, seems to correspond to Kūrkū $k\bar{o}r\bar{a}$. In $\bar{o}n$, Santālī $h\hat{a}n$, child, on the other hand, the initial k, h is an old prefix and does not belong to the base.

Note also the predilection for the cerebral d in words such as desa, country, etc.

In Ramagiri an o, i.e. probably \hat{a} , is often written for a; thus, pasi and posi, boy. A short u is, in the same locality, often added to words ending in a consonant; thus, $m\bar{a}l$ -u, property; tin-u, give. This latter peculiarity is, of course, due to the influence of Telugu.

Nouns.—There is apparently no difference between the animate and the inanimate genders. The dual has been replaced by the plural, which is formed by adding the suffix ji, corresponding to Khariā and Juāng ki. Thus, $w\bar{a}n\cdot ji$, fathers. Ji is derived from jin, and the final n is retained in the oblique cases; thus, $w\bar{a}n\cdot jin\cdot ba$, to fathers.

The base often ends in n; thus, $w\bar{a}\dot{n}$ and $w\bar{a}\dot{n}$ -an, a father. It is impossible to detect any difference in meaning between the two forms. An is perhaps by origin a demonstrative pronoun, and forms such as $w\bar{a}\dot{n}$ -an can then be compared with Dravidian forms such as Tamil tagappa-n, father.

The cases of the direct and indirect object are not expressed in the verb. They are formed by adding suffixes such as an, in, to; ba, to, and so forth. Thus, kudub-an, to all; $bo\ w\bar{a}\dot{n}-an$, to a father; $w\bar{a}\dot{n}-jin-ba$, to fathers.

The suffix ku in kiñchor-ku, (he saw) a dog, and so forth, is Telugu or Oriyā.

An is also the suffix of the locative; thus, sin-an and sin-len-an, in the house.

An ablative is formed by adding suffixes such as te, sitle, and so on. Thus, $dolai-b\bar{a}-te$, from hunger; $v\bar{a}\dot{n}-b\bar{a}-sitle$, from a father.

The suffix of the genitive is a or na; thus, $w\bar{a}\dot{n}$ -an-a, of a father; $gorg\bar{a}\dot{n}$ -na, of the village. This form is often used before postpositions; thus, $dumb\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $ma\dot{n}$, before the Dom; $w\bar{a}\dot{n}$ -jin- \bar{a} -san, for the sake of fathers.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that they agree most nearly with those in use in Khariā. Forms such as mi, one; $b\bar{a}r$, two; $y\bar{a}r$, three, are only used in compounds. Higher numbers are counted in twenties.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

$\tilde{n}\bar{e}n$, I	aman, thou	anin, he.
$\tilde{n}\tilde{e}n$ - a , my	aman-a, thy	anin-a, his.
ellen,-len, we	ambē, you	$ani\tilde{n}$ - ji , they.
ellen-a, our	amben-a, your	aniñ-jin-a, their.

The specimens received from Ramagiri give $n\bar{e}n$, I. A list of words forwarded from Vizagapatam has forms such as $me\bar{n}e$, I; $me\bar{n}\bar{a}$, my; ellen and mallen, we, etc. Such forms do not occur in the specimens. $N\bar{e}n$ and $n\bar{e}n$, I, are due to the influence of Telugu.

 \tilde{Nen} , my, and nam, thy, are used as pronominal suffixes of the genitive. Thus, $tanub-\tilde{nen}$, my share; $ma\tilde{n}-ba-nam$, presence-in-thy, before thee.

An a is often prefixed to nouns, and it can then be translated as a kind of definite article. Thus, a-wān-ba, to the father; a-don-an, on the body. It is probably a demonstrative pronoun; compare Telugu a. Other demonstrative pronouns are kani and kana, this; kuni and kuna, that. There is apparently no difference between kani and

kana; kuni and kuna, respectively. The forms ending in i were perhaps originally used to denote animate beings, and those ending in a to denote inanimate nouns.

Interrogative pronouns are bote, who? jite, and ete, what?

Verbs.—The Savara verb is characterized by the same simplicity that we observe in the case of Khariā. The direct and indirect objects are not expressed in the verb; there is no trace of the many conjugational and inflexional bases of the Kherwārī verb and so forth.

The person of the verb is occasionally expressed by adding personal suffixes. The most common one is i, or, occasionally, $i\dot{n}$, for the first person. Thus, $apu\dot{n}\cdot t\ddot{a}\cdot i$, I shall say; $kiet-t-i\dot{n}$, I shall die. In the second person we occasionally find forms such as dako-l-am, thou wast, and in the third person plural ji is quite common; thus, $edik\bar{a}le\ dako-ji$, they were merry.

There are apparently only two tenses, one for the present and future times and one for the past.

The present-future is formed by adding the suffix te. Te is derived from ten, and the final n is often retained before the suffix of the third person plural. Before the suffix of the first person the e of te is dropped or replaced by a, or else tenā is used instead. Tenā is probably the old suffix ten, corresponding to Mundārī tan, and an ā which is perhaps identical with the categorical a of Kherwārī. Thus, kiet-t-in, I die; titta-i, I give; it-ten-ā-i, I shall go; dako-te-ji and dako-te-ji, they are.

The corresponding suffix of the past is le. Thus, $p\bar{a}n-la-i$, I brought; $il-len-\bar{a}-i$, I went; kiel-le, he died; $kiel-l\bar{e}-ji$, they killed; $poch\bar{a}ri-le\bar{n}-ji$, they asked. Forms such as $irr\bar{e}-ji$, they went, contain the same suffix, which has become changed into r after r. In the second specimen we find $irr\bar{e}-be$, we went. The final be has probably nothing to do with the suffix of the past. It is perhaps a pronominal suffix; compare Kherwārī $b\bar{u}$, we.

In the third person singular $\bar{e}te$ is commonly used instead of le; thus, $tiy-\bar{e}te$, he gave; $jum-\bar{e}te$, he ate; $gam-\bar{e}te$, he said, etc. Forms such as $er-\bar{a}i-te$, he has come, are probably identical.

The most common suffixes of the imperative are \bar{a} , ai, ba, and na; thus, $ir\bar{a}$, go; $jum-\bar{a}$, eat; $p\bar{a}n-ai$, and $p\bar{a}n-ai-ba$, bring; genda-ba and $gend\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, draw water, and so on. A prefix a is often used. Thus, a-ir-ba, let us go; $a-gu-s\bar{a}i-ba$, put on; a-ru-ba, put on. Note also forms such as dako-ai-te, let us become; jum-te-be, let us eat; $a-edik\bar{a}-ten-a-i$, we should make merry; a-jum-be, don't eat.

The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, α -jum-ben, feeding for, in order to feed; dako-ban, being-in, to be.

Relative participles are formed by adding a to the bases of the present and past tenses. Thus, set-ten-a mandrā, the man who squanders; kimbonan jum-ten-a kinaman, pigs eating husks, the husks which the pigs eat; $a\tilde{n}\bar{\imath}$ -len-a tiki, spent time, at the time when it had been spent. Compare genitive and the relative participles in Telugu.

Other participles are formed by adding an or n; thus, dako-n, being; $tid-\bar{a}n$, striking. An infix an is sometimes used in a similar way. Thus, d-an-aku, being; t-an-idan, beating.

The usual conjunctive participle is formed by adding the past base to the participle ending in an; thus, iyān-ille, having gone; guān-gū-le, having called. Forms such as gille, having seen; tub-tub-le, having divided, are, however, also used alone.

SAVARA. 221

The negative particle is apparently a prefixed a. Thus, a-dēye, was not; a-til-leñ-ji, gave not; a-jum-a-i, I shall not eat. Gam-gon-in, I say not, probably contains some negative verb meaning 'to be unworthy,' 'to decline,' or something of the kind. In the Ramagiri specimens we find forms such as tiyāijā, I will not give; irnang-layi-nā-san, because I could not get.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son from Parla Kimedi in Ganjam. The second is a folk-tale which has been forwarded from Vizagapatam. The two last ones, the deposition of a witness and a popular tale, have been received from Ramagiri in Ganjam. A list of Standard Words and Phrases from Parla Kimedi will be found on pages 243 and ff.

[No. 48.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

SAVARA.

SPECIMEN I.

(PARLA KIMEDI, GANJAM.)

mandrān dako. Anin bāgu oner pasin-ji dako-le-ji. Bo Bāguñji-lēnan HisOne man was. two male children were-they. Both-in sannāri gam-ēte, wān, ellen-a dako-ten-a jandrum-gandra kudublēnan smallsaid, father, being property all-in tanub-ñēn tin.' Anin tanub tub-tub-le tiyēte. Asui oyon sullen-a-tiki share divided-having share-my give.' Hegave. daysSomepast-when sanna rabalan kudub rukun-rukū-le ñam-le sanai dēsa erēte. Tetten smallallboy collected-having taken-having far country went. Therekudub lēbun añi-le assidēte. Kudub añi-len-a-tiki kuni dēsa-lēnan money spent-having allwasted. Allspent-when thatcountry-in aindam kantāra dē-le. Anin dolaï-mar Kuni dēsa-lēnan bo maņdrā-bān dēle. Hefamine became. hunger-man became. That country-in one man-to a-serō-bān kimbonan ā-jum-bēn iyān-il-le kambāri dē-le. Anin apāyēte. labourergone-having became. Hethe-field-to swinefeeding-for sent. Kimbonan jum-ten-a kinaman ñan-lenden, edika-le kuni dolaï-mar jum-te Swine eating husks got-if, gladlythat hunger-man eat-would bin-do mojāja kinaman ampra a-til-leñ-ji. Nami buddi ñaṅ-le ogandi-ēte, anybody husk even gave-not-they. Now sense got-having thought, ' wān-ñēn-a sero-bān aindam baddi-mar-ji dako-ji. A kuduban midap 'father-my-of field-in many working-men are. Those all-to much ganāga dako-do ñēn tettēn dolaï-bāte kiettin. Ejja. ñēn diyan-de-le livelihood is-but I here hunger-from die.No, I arisen-having wān-ñēn-bān iyān-ille apun-tai, "wān, Kituń-bāń, mań-ba-nam er-te, wān, go-will, gone-having say-will, "father, father, father-my-to God-to. before-thee amēlai. Untenāsan ersi ñēn Ñēn ōn-ñēn gam-gon-in. kambāri-nam did. sin **Therefore** Ison-I say-not. I servant-thy dē-tin," ennegoi apun-tai.' Gam-le gam-damnēte; tete-sitle shall-become-I," thus say-shall. Said-having say-self-did; therefrom a-wān-bān iyēte. Sanaï-sitle a-rabalan-a donan gijan-gille amalle that-father-to went.Far-from that-boy-of body seen-having recognized-having dudu-dudu-iyān-ille apasu-yam-dā-le anin kondo-le korkorēte. A-wānan run-gone-having pain-feeling himembracing kissed. The-father

wān, manba-nam Kitun-ban gijān-gille rabāri gamēte, ampra ersi before-thee father, God-to seen-having boy said. even wrong gam-gon-in.' A-wan parsamañjin Ñēn ōn-ñēn guān-gū-le amēlaï. say-not. The-father servants I son-I called-having did-I. ambese sindri pān-le anin-a donān 'aboi a-gusāiba; gam-ēte, 'one goodclothbrought-having his body cover ; said, a-karsin a-taljenan panderjān Baran ensin arub-a, arub-a. bo kari the-foot-on the-finger-on ring put, shoe put. Again fat pān-le kiebba; edikā-le dako-aï-te. Kana ōn-ñēn kallodin tetten brought-having kill; glad-being we-shall-be. This calf here son-my aman kiel-le namibaran mēn-le; aman padole, nami baran ñan-laï.' before diednow again lived: before lost-was, now again found-I.' Aninji edikāle dako-ji. glad-being were. They

a-muda ōn seroban daku. Anin \sin adam-adam eraite, Nami Now the-elder sonfield-in was. Hehouse near-near guān-gū-le wāllēte, 'etēnāsan tonsenan saddāle. Bo parsāman kenkenan dancing sounded. One servantcalled-having accosted, 'what-for singing edika?' Anin apunēte, 'uban-nam eraite. "Anin ulāmāta dako, " kana " He mirth?' Hesaid. 'brother-thy came. coolis." this kallodin kiellē-ji.' Muda-mar bandrab gam-le wān-nam-ji kari fatkilled-they.' Big-the calfsaid-having father-thy-they angry gamēte. Untēnāsan a-wān sandān ivān-'sinan aniyāi,' 'house will-not-come,' said. Therefore the-futher outside gonebecame, Muda gamēte, ditte avam manba-nam barâle sagallēte. ōn ille timeso-much before-thee worked-having honoured. Bigsaid, having "Gadi-nam-ji-bāte edikānaba," Berna-nam anoija apadoliń. dako-ten-ā-i. " Friends-thy-with broke-not make-merry," Word-thy ever am-I. ōn-mē soi atillin. Nami kana sannāri junjudi-boinji gam-le aboi this young-one harlotry-women Now saying one young-goat even gavest-not. iraiten-tado bāte jandrum-gandra kudub moile settena mandrā anin came-immediately he swallowing throwing man withproperty allkielle.' gamēte, ejja, ōn-ñēn, anina-mele kari kallōdi A-wan The-father said. 'no, calfkilledst.' son-my, fathis-sake-for manba-ñēn Jandrum-ñēn kuduban amannāte. todan dakote. aman Property-my thine-is. allwith-me art. always thou baran mēn-le; aman pado-le, nami baran Uban-nam aman kielle, namilived; before lost-was, nowagain Brother-thy before died, again now a-edikātenai.' ellēn ñań-la-i. Untenāsan shall-make-merry. found-I. Therefore we

[No. 49.]

MUŅŅĀ FAMILY.

SAVARA.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT VIZAGAPATAM.)

A FOLK-TALE.

Gorjānan · kārja-leñ-ji. Gorján-na mandrā sabiñ-ji bontēl-bā Village-in obsequies-did-they. Village-of men allbuffalo-for illē-ji. Kani gorjān-lunan aboi banāgi-mar daku-le. Ani mari went. That village-in onepoor-man was. Healso bontēl-bā Gorjān-na ivēte. mandrā sabiñ-ji bontel ñiyān-ñile buffalo-for went. Village-of men allbuffaloes bought-having pān-leñ-ji. Banāgi-mar mari lāgōda-bontēl aboi dumbānāman brought. Poor-man alsocredit-buffalo Dom-from one pān-le. Gorjān-na maņdrā-ji, 'onā-sile pān-lai?' gām-le opun-lē-ji. brought. Village-of men. 'where-from broughtest?' said-having asked. 'Ijja, lāgōda pān-laï dumbanaman,' gāmēte. 'Don-ñēn-a sandrukā-mele · No. creditbrought-I Dom-from,' said. ' Body-my-of well-being-for pān-laï.' Sabiñ-ji pur-pur-tubob-ji. Banāgi-mar kani usălan dumbrought-I.' All ceremony-performed. Poor-man thatskinDombānāman junjūnēte. Tanoran jumbur-maran oñji mandrā sanaïto carried. Way-on thief-men four men farsitle gillē-ji. 'Iñjiden tubob-te. gām-le usālan ñaman-ñam-le from saw. · Now kill-will, saying skin taken-having arān dajēte. Tettenā arān-eb jumbur-maran gob-lē-ji. Tankān treeclimbed. There tree-under thief-men sat-they. Rupeesoñji mandrā bantel-ji. 'Aman-ā aladam asūdam,' ñēn gām-le four men divided. ' Thine much mine little,' said-having rudi-leñ-ji. 'Aman etti-den bantva.' gām-leñ-ji. Batun-batun-le arānā quarrelled. · Thou then divide.' Feared-having said. tree dajē-tenā mandrā usālan sirēte. 'Agāyi, tabdrēlan layimtā-le, climbed-having manskindropped. · Oh, thunderboltfell, jumbur-maran gām-le tankan omdā-le irrē-ji. Arā-liṅ-na mandrā said-having thief-men rupees left-having went. Tree-in-being man latsonāite. Tankān susē-le pān-ēte usālan omdā-le. Jülu descended. Money picked-up-having tookskinleft-having. Then

-	r-maran ^r - <i>men</i>	n oñjiñji taṅkā-bā illāji. four money-for came.		Tankā-te Money-fro	500000	usālan skin		
daku. is.	'Etenā 'What	karma <i>work?</i>		a-len ey-we	sille left-having	tabdrēlan thunderbolt	$egin{smale} ext{gam-le} \ ext{\it said-having} \end{aligned}$	irrēbe. went.
Mabā Forward	a-ir-l l let-us	,	gām-le d-having	usāla skin	1	9	usālan skin	$tim\bar{a}n$ - $sold$ -
tim-le $having$	aboi one	kimbu <i>pig</i>	ñiyān-ñ bought-h		jum-lē-ji. ate.			

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Funeral ceremonies were held in the village, and all the villagers went to fetch buffaloes. There was a poor man in the village who also wanted a buffalo. All the other ones bought buffaloes, and the poor man got a buffalo on credit from a Dom. The villagers asked him where he had got it, and he said that he had it on credit from a Dom and had brought it for the sake of his health. They all worshipped and sacrificed the buffaloes. The poor man was carrying the skin back to the Dom, and on the way he saw four thieves at a distance. Seeing them he mounted a tree with the skin, for fear that they would beat him. The thieves sat down under the tree to divide their money. They quarrelled and said, 'you take too much, and I get too little,' 'then divide yourself,' and so on. The man in the tree dropped the skin from fear. The thieves left the rupees and ran away saying, 'a thunderbolt came down.' The man descended from the tree, picked up the rupees and left the skin. 'What has happened,' they said, 'we left the rupees and went away on account of the thunderbolt. Come let us go.' So they picked up the skin, sold it and bought a pig, which they ate.

12

MUNDA FAMILY.

SAVARA.

SPECIMEN III.

(RAMAGIRI, GANJAM.)

DEPOSITION OF A WITNESS.

Mi-gal gal-ji dinā pūrba nēn Jujusti muddāyin kulumbayi Eleven ten daysagoI Jujusti accused-of wife Rādhā-nā-mong bāgu rannā kub bo taṅkā-nā-san bandan tillavi. Nēn . Rādhā-before goldtwobeads one rupee-for pawn gave. I tankān irnang-layi-nasan Jujustin bate illenāyi. Jujustin liāri-mar; rupee got-not-because Jujusti withwent-I. Jujusti fisherman: anin lien-tinte-mar. Muddāyi-nā a-nam Bālāji Beradolayi. 'Rannāhesweet-seller. Accused-of ' Goldthe-name $B\bar{a}l\bar{a}ji$ Beradolāyi. kub devi-be pān-tāyi, gam-le Bālāji Beradolāvi-nā sun illenāyi. beads to-redeem shall-bring,' saying $B\bar{a}l\bar{a}ji$ Beradolāyi-of house went-I. A-bowan a-wanan muddāyin kulumbayi silengan nēn tiyānu tille. The-principal the-interest accused-of wife to \boldsymbol{I} giving gave. 'Bandan tillenāyi tingu,' bitti gam-legārlenāvi. ' A-mālu nēn 'Mortgage gave-Igive,' property saying demanded. 'The-property Ĭ tiyāijā; nēte pāntā,' gamēte. 'Anin bitti-nën bowan a-wanan give-not; buytake,' said. · That property-my principal interesttil-le pān-le it-ten-āyi pannā etāsan nē-te pān-te?' gam-le giving taking shall-go but take-shall? whybuy-shall saying apun-len-āyi. Oñji-dinā dinā-silu muddāyin a-sun-an asāyi sudāsaid-I. Four-days days-after accusedthe-house-in some good-menmar-ji-nā-mong a-bittin tiyyayite. Aninji, 'botanā bitti?' before the-property produced. They, " whose property?' pochāri-leñ-ji. 'Nenāte,' gam-le apun-len-ayi. Nēn etten apuń-len-āvi asked-they. ' Mine-is,' saying said-I. I80 said-I muddāyin kudub-jinā-mong kedi nēn tid-le. then accused me all-before beat.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Some ten days ago I and Jujusti went to Rādhā, the wife of the accused, and pawned two gold beads for a rupee. I could not get money, and therefore I went with

Jujusti. Jujusti is a fisherman and deals in sweets. The name of the accused is Bālāji Beradolāyi. When I came to Bālāji Beradolāyi's house to redeem the gold beads I paid the principal and the interest to the accused's wife and asked for my property. She refused to give it up unless I bought it. I replied, 'I am going to pay principal and interest in order to redeem my property. Why should I buy it?' Four days after the accused produced the property in his house in the presence of some good men. They asked whose property it was, and I said that it was mine. Immediately after I had said so the accused struck me before all the men.

MUNDA FAMILY.

SAVARA.

Specimen IV.

(RAMAGIRI, GANJAM.)

A POPULAR TALE.

 B_0 dinā bo sottā posi-jannaku a-wā kenken-sun-an apāyi-le. his-father One dayboy school-house-in sent. one lamekenken-nā-san Dele A-posi a-dakku-le. bāroki bo posi-jannaku was-not-inclined. ButThe-boy read-to another one boy gij-le apun-le, 'uban, aman nēn bate bokedikā gatāsinā.' seen-having said, ' brother, thouwitha-little-while meplay.' Anin apun-le, ongādo, ongādo, nēn adasāmārte. Nēn kenken-sun ille Hesaid. · no. I am-not-disengaged. I school-house gone-having no. kenken-ten-āyi.' Teten-silu a-posi-jan bo awan-tanu bate gij-le. Posi apun-le, read-shall.' Thereafter the-boy calfalsoBoy saw. said, 'are awan-tanu, aman nēn bate gatāsinā.' Awan-tanu apun-le. 'nēn 60 calf, play.' thouwith· Calf said. $^{\epsilon}I$ adasante. nēn sangāsi agāwan gānā-gānā-san jodā-ban itte.' Teten-silu am-not-disengaged, I excellentgrasseating-for river-side go.' Thereafter a-posi bo onti gij-le apun-le, 'ē onti, aman nēn bate jāyi, gatāsinēbā.' the-boy one bird seen-having said, 'O bird, thouwithcome, let-us-play.' meAnin apun-le, 'nēn nēn-nā-sun barosabjanāsan adasente. asūyi alanu He٠I am-not-disengaged, my-house build-to a-little straw parangu-pānu-nāsan itte.' Posi bo kiñehor-ku gij-le apun-le, 'ē kiñchor, aman fetch-to go. Boyone dogseen-having said. · 0 dog, thou nēn bate gatāsinā.' Kinchor apun-le, 'ongādo, ongādo, nēn adasen-te. nēn me withplay.' Dogsaid, · no, I am-not-disengaged, I no, sāwu-nēn-nā sunu duntā-ban itte.' Teten-silu posi țisinăsan manasu a-deve. master-my-of house watch-to go.' Thereafter boy play-to mind not-became.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A lame boy was one day sent to school by his father. He did not wish to read, and seeing another boy he said, 'brother, play a little while with me.' He said, 'no, no, I am not disengaged, I am going to school to read.' Then the boy saw a calf and said, 'O calf, play with me.' Said the calf, 'I have no time, I am going to the river to feed on the excellent grass.' Then the boy saw a bird and said, 'O bird, come let us play.' Answered the bird, 'I have no time. I am going to bring some straw to build my nest.' The boy saw a dog and said, 'O dog, play with me.' The dog answered, 'I have no time; I am going to guard my master's house.' Thereafter the boy did not wish to play any more.

GADABĂ.

Gadabā is spoken by about 35,000 individuals, most of whom live outside the territory included in this Survey. The dialect is not identical in all places. It has not, however, been possible to procure trustworthy materials illustrating its various forms. I am only able to give a superficial account of the dialect as spoken in the Bastar State.

The Gadabā tribe is found everywhere in Vizagapatam and the Vizagapatam Agency, and also in the Ganjam Agency, all of which are in the Madras Presidency. Some few Gadabās have also been returned from the Bastar State and Kalahandi. They do not form the prevailing part of the population in any district. They are most numerous in the Vizagapatam Agency, where 232 in every 10,000 of the population speak Gadabā. In Vizagapatam only 72 in every 10,000 are in the same position, and in other districts the relative number of speakers is quite unimportant.

I have no information about the distribution of the Gadabās on the various Taluks of the Vizagapatam Agency. In the Bastar State they are found in the east, on the frontier towards Vizagapatam. Their occupation is hunting and agriculture.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey Gadabā was spoken by 6,419 individuals in the Bastar State. At the Census of 1891, 29,414 speakers were returned from the Madras Presidency. We thus arrive at the following total for the dialect:—

ras Presidency. W	еши	s ar.	TIVE	re eme	TOTT	wmg	, wie	or TOT	шо	aran	. 000	
Bastar State .	[•	·.	((-			•	•	•		6,419
Madras Presidency	•	[•		•	.•	•	•		•	•		29,414
									T	DTAL		35,833
The corresponding	_	es at	the	Cens	us of	1901	wei	e as	follo	ws:	- '	
CENTRAL PROVINCES	_										729	
Bastar	•	•	•		•		•	•	•	•	94	
Kalahandi .	•	•	•	•	•	[•	•	•	•	•	94	
					TOTAL	CENT	BAL P	ROVIN	CES			828
MADRAS PRESIDENCY	Y											
Ganjam .				•							1,602	
Ganjam Agenc	у.		·•								8	
Vizagapatam	•										15,015	
Vizagapatam A	gency										19,781	
8-1	0 0				(37.)							
					TOTAL	MADE	as Pr	ESIDE	NCY			36,400
Andamans and	Nicoba	ars	•	•				•	•	•		
					٠. ،			To	TAL			37,230
	2							10	IAD	•		01,20

It will be seen that the number of speakers in Madras has increased. This fact is, however, due to the better methods applied at the last Census, and it is impossible to decide whether there is a real increase. The estimated number of speakers in the Bastar State is probably far above the mark. The corresponding figure at the Census of 1891 was 375.

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CARMICHAEL, D. F.,—A Manual of the District of Vizagapatam in the Presidency of Madras. Madras, 1869. Contains a Gadabā vocabulary.

Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency. Madras, 1885—1893. Vol. ii, pp. 203 and f. contain a Gadabā vocabulary.

The Gadabā dialect is very unsatisfactorily known. The old vocabularies are quite insufficient for giving a sketch of its grammar. Of the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey the best is the translation of the statement of an accused person in the Gadabā dialect of Bastar which will be printed as Specimen II below. It has been forwarded in Dēvanāgarī characters with an interlinear translation, but without any transliteration. It is not, therefore, quite certain that the text printed in the ensuing pages is correct in all details.

The text given as Specimen I below is the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son. It has been forwarded in Dēvanāgarī with a transliteration and translation. The transliteration does not, however, agree with the Dēvanāgarī text, and it has turned out to be so full of mistakes that it has been of no use whatever. The Dēvanāgarī text itself is apparently a clean copy of an original draft. It has been made by somebody who had not the slightest idea of the meaning, and who accordingly misread the original in most places. I have not therefore ventured to restore the text throughout. I have only reproduced the beginning of the Dēvanāgarī text as I have received it with a tentative restoration in transliteration.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases from Bastar will be found on pp. 243 and ff. The dialect spoken in Vizagapatam is apparently quite different. It has not, however, been possible to get sufficient materials for describing it. The Collector has kindly forwarded an incomplete list of Standard Words and Phrases, and the beginning of a version of the Parable. The latter was, however, too fragmentary and evidently too full of mistakes to be of use. From the former I have inserted the equivalents in the list of words on pp. 243 and ff. They have been added within parenthesis.

The notes on Gadabā grammar which follow are entirely based on the Bastar specimens. The materials received from Vizagapatam have only occasionally been consulted.

Pronunciation.—The materials are not sufficient for deciding the various questions connected with Gadabā pronunciation. Semi-consonants are perhaps used in words such as $d\tilde{a}$, Santālī $d\tilde{a}k$, water; $g\tilde{o}y$, Santālī $g\tilde{a}ch$, die; $g\tilde{o}g\tilde{o}$ and $g\tilde{o}g\tilde{o}b$, to tend, and so forth.

Vowels are often interchanged. Thus, ungam and ungom, village; āpāng and āpōng, father; sumang, suang and sumong, before, and so forth.

The *n* of the genitive suffix $n\bar{u}$ has apparently been replaced by l in $l\bar{u}y-l\bar{u}$, whose? Note also $\bar{o}n$, child, as in Savara. It is not, however, possible to bring the various irregularities under fixed rules.

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Nouns.—If we can trust the specimens, there are no traces of a difference between animate and inanimate nouns, or of the existence of a dual. The plural appears to be expressed by adding some word meaning 'many'; thus, lõngā āpōng, many fathers, fathers. A suffix nēn or nan occurs in forms such as sākhī-nēn, the witnesses; kumbaī-nan, women. Compare māy-nēn and māy-nēng, they. The Vizagapatam list gives forms such as ayāngu-nī, fathers; koḍamlē-nī, daughters; lē lōk-ḍukēyi, good men; māḍu krutā, many horses, horses; kussō-ḍigan, dogs, and so forth.

The cases of the direct and indirect object are not expressed in the verb. They are expressed by means of postpositions such as $n\bar{o}$, pulai, and so forth. Thus, $M\bar{a}t\bar{a}-n\bar{o}$ $n\bar{o}m$ $bu\bar{o}-su\bar{o}$, Mātā thou killedst; $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}-pulai$ $sun\bar{o}$, father-to he-said.

The suffix of the genitive is $n\bar{o}$, $n\bar{u}$, or $n\bar{a}$; thus, $\bar{a}p\bar{a}ng-n\bar{o}$, of a father; $kal\bar{a}r-n\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$, of the liquor seller. Compare Savara $n\bar{a}$. The Vizagapatam texts have forms ending in na. In $p\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ $kirt\bar{a}-r$ $kh\bar{o}g\bar{\imath}r$, the white horse's saddle, we have perhaps a genitive suffix r.

Other postpositions are kurung, from; bō, in, to, etc. Thus, māy-nō bōbrō māy-nō tōnān kurung tīr dugu, his brother his sister from tall is, his brother is taller than his sister; māy-nō āpōng mēyēn-kā diyēn-bō dutu, his father small house in lives.

Numerals.—The first numerals will be found in the list of words. It will be seen that Aryan loan-words are used in Bastar for the numerals seven and following. The Gadabā numerals are most closely related to those in use in Savara and Khariā.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ning, nĩ, I	nōm, thou	$m\bar{a}y$, he.
nīng-nō, my	nōm-nō, thy	$m\bar{a}y$ - $n\bar{o}$, his.
$n\bar{e}i\dot{n}g$, we	pēn, pēn-chā, you	māy-nēn, māy-nēng, they.
proportion and an arrange	pē-nū, pai-nū, your	māyēn-nug, their.

The form $p\bar{e}$ -nug, our, in the list of words is probably a mistake. $P\bar{e}$ -nug is apparently identical with $p\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$, your. A form $l\bar{e}$, we, seems to occur as a verbal suffix. See below.

Datives and accusatives are apparently formed by prefixing u or \bar{o} ; thus, \bar{o} - $n\bar{i}ng$, to me; u- $m\bar{a}y$, him; \bar{o} - $m\bar{a}y$, to him; \bar{o} - $n\bar{o}$ - $ma\bar{i}$ sun \bar{o} , the son said to him.

The Vizagapatam texts have quite different forms; thus, mīngu, I; mīngu-na, my; bilangu, we; bilangu-nu, our; bābin, thou; māngu, you; no, novvān, he; nōyāng, nōngu, they, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns are $t\bar{e}$, this; $t\bar{o}$, tu, and $n\bar{a}i$, that.

Interrogative pronouns are lai, who? $l\bar{a}y$ - $l\bar{u}$, whose? mang, what? \bar{a} , which? $\bar{a}d\bar{z}$, how much? and so forth. The Vizagapatam list gives $m\bar{o}yi$, who? nayita and $n\bar{a}yinam$, what?

Indefinite pronouns are formed from the interrogatives; thus, laikī, anybody; mang-sā and māng-dig, anything.

Verbs.—The inflexion of verbs is apparently very simple. Reduplicated and doubled bases are apparently freely used; thus, sa-sudagū, attached; buk-buk, striking, etc. I have not, however, found anything corresponding to the richly developed system of conjugational bases which forms so characteristic a feature of Kherwārī.

The direct and the indirect objects do not appear to be expressed in the verb. The subject is not expressed by means of pronominal suffixes. There are, however, some

traces of a state of affairs which is related to that prevailing in typical Mundā languages. Compare:—

Māy-nu āpung-laē suno, 'junēn, ātoār-kēlē (?) pē-nu sēvā nī dēmēd-nīng du-to. - His father-to said, 'see, so-many-years your service I ār pēl-taï-tunīng. Mīō pēn ō-nīng udē muyē gī-mē-ō Your command not transgress-I. And you to-me ever one goat-even young not bē-tō-pēn, nīng-nu dīsēl bu-dag sārdā dēng-dēng-tun-ō-lē. Pē-nu tē ōdu-ōn kīsbīn give-you, friends with merry make-we. Your this son bu-dag pē-nu dan samōsu ērān-ēl-pīmudīdaē-ēl (?) pēn māy pulaē lē with your property eaten-having as-soon-as-he-came-then you him for good kundarō-pēn. cooked-you.

The above passage which I have been able to restore with some certainty from the very corrupt original, contains the suffixed pronouns $n\bar{n}ng$ (or $\bar{n}ng$), I; $p\bar{e}n$, you; $l\bar{e}$, we, used to express the subject. Compare also $su\bar{o}$ -ning $b\bar{e}d\bar{o}$, thrown-I-have; $\bar{a}pung$ $n\bar{n}ng$ $m\bar{a}h\bar{a}par\bar{u}$ -nu hukum $\bar{a}r$ $m\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{o}ning$, father, I God-of order not worshipped. The Vizagapatam list contains forms such as $bil\bar{a}ngu-l\bar{e}$ yi, we-we went; $m\bar{a}ngu-m\bar{o}$ yi, you-you went; $n\bar{o}ngu-vu$ $yiy\bar{e}$, they went; $m\bar{n}ng$ $mit\bar{a}n$ $sang\bar{a}yi-n\bar{e}$ yi, I to-day far-I went, and so forth; where $l\bar{e}$, $m\bar{o}$, vu, and $n\bar{e}$, respectively, appear to be pronominal suffixes denoting the subject.

The common suffix of the present tense is $t\bar{o}$ or tu; thus, $m\bar{a}ng$ - $t\bar{o}$, I know; du-tu, is; buk-tu, beats; $g\bar{o}$ - $g\bar{o}y$ -du-tu, I am dying. Forms such as $s\bar{a}rd\bar{a}$ $d\bar{e}ng$ - $d\bar{e}ng$ -tun- \bar{o} - $l\bar{e}$, that we might make merry, seem to show that the suffix was originally tun; compare Mundari tan. In $m\bar{a}h\bar{a}par\bar{u}$ -nu hukum $\bar{a}r$ $m\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{o}ning$, God's order not obey-I; sun- $tun\bar{\imath}$, I will say, and so forth, the tense suffix is perhaps likewise tun, $t\bar{o}n$, and the final ing or $\bar{\imath}$ must then be the old form of the personal pronoun of the first person singular. In sun- $t\bar{o}n$ - $\bar{e}n$, they say, the final $\bar{e}n$ is perhaps the suffix of the third person. Compare $m\bar{a}y$ - $\bar{e}n$ -nug, their.

Another suffix of the present is ning; thus, oining, go.

The suffix $\bar{e}d$ in $d\bar{e}m-\bar{e}d-n\bar{i}ng$ $dut\bar{o}$, doing-I am, seems to correspond to Santālī et. It also takes the form \bar{i} ; thus, $id-\bar{i}$ dutu, drinking-am, I drink; $\bar{u}-i$ dutu, he is coming.

The present is also used as a future; thus, $sun-tun-\bar{i}$, I will say; $ph\bar{a}s\bar{i}$ $b\bar{e}-tun\bar{e}n$, rope give-will, will hang. According to the list of words a suffix $b\bar{e}$ is added; thus, $buk-t\bar{u}-b\bar{e}$, I shall strike. Other future forms are pi-lam, it will come; $n\bar{a}i-l\bar{o}ng$, I will go. I cannot analyse them.

The past is formed by adding one of the suffixes u or o, and $\bar{\imath}$; thus, du-g-u, was; sun- \bar{o} , said; ju- \bar{o} , saw; $g\bar{o}i$ -g- $\bar{\imath}$, died; $\bar{o}ig$ - $\bar{\imath}$, went; $\bar{o}n$ - $\bar{\imath}$, heard. Forms such as $bu\bar{o}n\bar{e}n$, killed; $su\bar{o}n\bar{e}n$, threw, etc., probably contain a pronominal suffix of the third person.

Compound past tenses are formed by adding the verb substantive; thus, buō-dutu, I have killed; sēbō dugu, I had killed; nīng-nu ōdu-ōn gōē-gu dugu mīyō bur-lagu; bīsugu dugu mīō bōgu, my son dead was and revived; lost was and was found.

I cannot analyse the suffixes in sōbōnō, boughtest, and sōbōnam, I bought.

The common suffix of the imperative is $n\bar{e}n$; thus, $t\bar{o}l-n\bar{e}n$, bind, $ju-n\bar{e}n$, see. Other imperatives are \bar{o} - $m\bar{a}y$ $n\bar{a}n$ - $b\bar{e}$, to-him give; $lud\bar{o}r\bar{\iota}ng$, take; $ind\bar{e}$, give me; \bar{a} $d\bar{e}m\bar{o}$, do not; $n\bar{n}ng$ $sam\bar{o}$ -su $s\bar{a}rd\bar{a}$ $d\bar{e}m\bar{o}$, let us eating merry make.

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The re-duplicated and the present bases are used as verbal nouns. Thus, $ju-j\bar{u}$, to see; $g\bar{o}-g\bar{o}$, to feed; $buk-t\bar{u}$, to strike. A suffix g is apparently added in some cases; thus, $m\bar{a}y\ tu-n\bar{u}\ p\bar{\imath}-p\bar{\imath}g-nu\ b\bar{e}l\bar{a}$, he there coming of time, when he returned; $bun-d\bar{e}g-nu\ m\bar{e}n-d\bar{e}g-nu\ k\bar{o}l\bar{a}r\ \bar{o}ni$, music-of dancing-of sound heard.

The various bases are also used as participles; thus, buk-buk, beating; $g\bar{o}$ - $g\bar{o}b$, grazing; $bu\bar{o}$, struck, having struck. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding su; thus, $\bar{a}\bar{a}\bar{e}$ $l\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{o}pat$ $\bar{e}to$ -su \bar{o} - $m\bar{a}y$ $b\bar{o}d\bar{i}$, all good-good cloth bringing to-him give; $m\bar{a}y$ $m\bar{o}dgu$ -su $m\bar{a}y$ -nu $\bar{a}pung$ -lai, he having arisen his father-to (went); mai $ju\bar{o}$ -su $m\bar{a}y\bar{e}$ $d\bar{e}mo$, he having-seen pity made.

The negative particle is a prefixed $\bar{a}r$ or $ur\bar{a}$; compare Kherwārī $\bar{a}l\bar{o}$.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The dialect spoken in Vizagapatam is apparently quite different. The materials at my disposal are not, however, sufficient for describing it.

[No. 52.]

MUNDA FAMILY.

GADABĀ.

SPECIMEN I.

(STATE BASTAR.)

सुय रेमरतु ववंन उंवार वडुवंन । तुआ लुगतु मिएन श्रोडु श्रंन, बाबा, लयसुनी एवाबा, संसारी सय डुगु नीगं नुडुगुंना तुनू श्रोनी इन्डेतिवे । से तुंग - तुंग तेरो बेड़ो । लोंगा दीन डिगु आर दुतो मिएन श्रोडु श्रीन म्युरो बोड़े, मोडे मोस पर सबोएंगु मीयो , तुनो फन्दी डिगु सुडेंगू डुगू श्रो आयौ मायतु माल पुंलाए उडा वेडो । तेवे माये श्रोआ , श्रोते वे मायराजवी कुडु लोगु: माय गरीव डेंगु । मंतुये देसबो लयेनु डेनबोइ गिस सुये ड्रानें नुडेंन वोमाये डुगुः तुरें मल मायेनु लोशोंगबो गोबी गोगो नुवा । श्रोंमाय तुनू माय गीबी सम सम डुगु श्रमय समो सु सुलै बुसु लाशों: मय सोम सोम श्राखे । तो तेवे मयचेत लंगु , तेवे मये सुनो , नीग बावाड़ी एन श्राड़ी भुतौ लीश्रड़ार सोम सोम नुबो श्रोंग लई डुतु , नो कुडु गोगोय डुतू नीगं मोडगू सुनींग नुबाब श्रोरबो नई लोंग , श्रो मय सुन तुनो ए वावा माहा एक उक्त श्रार मानइ तोनी मींबो पिनु समो पाए नींग देमो ।

MUNDA FAMILY.

GADABĀ.

SPECIMEN I.

(STATE BASTAR.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

ōdu-ōn. Tuā-luṅg-nu mēēn Muy rēmar-nu vavamnambār ōdu-ōn. Them-among young 80n sons. One were-two man-of dugũnā bābā, samsārī may dugu, nīṅg-nu bā bā-[pu]lai sunō, ٠ē will-be father, which is, my father-to said, ٠0 property din-degu tung-tung-tero bēdō. Löngā tu-nū ō-nī indē.' Tēbē mai daysdivided Many he gave. shareto-me give.' Then par[dē]s-bō ĕṅgu, mīyō. ōdu-ōn myu-ō-bō dēmōsu ār du-tō, $m\bar{e}\bar{e}n$ abroadjourneyed, and togethermade-having young son not became, ōāyau māl-pulāē udā-bēdō. māy-nu tunō phandī-dēgusu dēngu-dugū, became, allhis property wasted. thereriotous-becoming garib logu; māy Tēbē māy ōāō, tēbē māy rāj-bō kudu -poor country-in famine arose; heThen all, thenthatheōi•gēsu muyē dēs-bō layē-nu $d\bar{e}n$ dēngu. Mai tuyē gone-having houseone that country-in somebody's Hebecame. liōng-bō māyē dugu. Tu rēmal māy-nu gībī dānam-nu den-bo rich-man-of house-in helived. That his field-in swine man gibi nuvāö. Māy tunū māy sam-sam-dugu, a-may sam-ō-su gōgō swine eating-were, thateating sent. Hethen those to-tend Tēbē bē-tō. chēt-langu, sulai busulāō. May sōm-sōm ār may gives. · Then he to-senses-came, Hе to-eat belly filled. notbhutī-līadār tēbē sunō, 'ning bābā dīēn ādī som-som may father's house how-many hirelings to-eat said, 'my then he dutu, gō-gōy-dutū. Ning mödgüsu. öng-lai ning kudu nubō I I arising is, hunger dying-am. them-for belly-to-fill "ē ō-may sun-tuni, bābā, māhāparū bāb-ör-bō nailong, nīng-nu God-of will-say, father, will-go (?), to-him father-near myning dēmō. miyō pi-nu samō pāp ār mānaïtōnī hukum did.I you-of *before* sinnotobeyed and command. 2 H 2

MUNDA FAMILY.

GADABĀ.

SPECIMEN II.

(BASTAR STATE.)

STATEMENT OF AN ACCUSED PERSON.

Pai-nū ungam Mātā imī rīlak dugū? village Māṭā name Thy $G\bar{o}nd$ was? Ōy, dugū, mātā ā urā. Yes, was, butnow not. Māţā ā bō uigī? Māṭā now where went? Bō uigī; urā māy gōigī uigī. Anywhere notwent; hediedwent. Māng-sā sarang gōigī, lāikī māy-nū buō-sũỗ ? Any diseasedied, himkilled? anyone Māy-nū maṅg-sā sarang urā dugū. Lāikī buō-nēn, tun gōigī Him-of anydiseasenot Somebody was. killed, diedthen uigī. went.

U-māy lāikī buō-nēn?

Him who killed?

Ning ēran māngtō?

I how know?

Sākhī-nēn sun-sun dutū ki Māṭā-nō nōm buō-suỗ. Ā nam-nū ā Witnesses saying are that Māṭā thou killedst. Now thee-of what san-tū dutu? saying is?

Ning ura buō; sākhī aāy kin-umāv. Ning budam Mātā budam I not killed; witnesses all are-tutored. MewithMatawithõyõnēn urā dutū. Ning māy māng-phulāy buō? \mathbf{m} ang- \mathbf{d} ig any quarrel not is. I him killed? why

Të tangaya nam-nu diyan-di turagu?
This axe thy house-from was-found?

Ōy, turagū; ning-nū ṭangayā dutū; to-pulāī ning-nū diyan turagū. Yes, was-found; my axe is; therefore my house was-found.

Tē ṭaṅgayā-nu-bō iyam saḍagū ḍutū? This axe-on blood attached is?

```
gēmē
                           dutū.
                                     Ning
                                                         sēbō
                                                                   dugū.
                                                                               Māy-nū
     Ōy,
             sa-sada-gū
                                                        killed
                            is.
                                       Ι
                                               goat
                                                                    was.
                                                                                 It-of
    Yes,
              attached
                     dutū.
ivam sa-sada-gū
       attached
                      is.
blood
                                    diyan-dig
                                                     tura-gū?
     Tē
            sēndarā
                        pai-nū
                                                   recovered-was?
     This
              cloth
                          thy
                                   house-from
                                                                   sēndarā
                havaldār
                               ning-nū
                                            su-mang
                                                          tē
                                                                                ning-nū
     Pulis
                                             before
                                                         this
                                                                    cloth
    Police
                havaldār
                                  my
                                                                                  my
           suō-nēn.
                         Ning
                                  suno,
                                             'tungdel,
                                                           itō
                                                                  ā-dē-mō.
                                                                               Ning-nū
 diyan
                                   said,
                                             ' Master,
                                                          this
                                                                   not-do.
                                                                                Me-of
house-in
            threw.
                           I
                                                         õ-ning
                                                                      phāsi-bē-tū-nén.'
tomnāng-nidā
                      pilam;
                                         mēp
                                      Government
                                                          to-me
                                                                     hanging-will-give.'
   trouble
                    will-come;
                                    Māṭā-phulāī
                                                      buō-dutū,
Havaldar
              suno,
                        'nōm-tō
                                                                       aāy
                                                                                  lōk
                         'thou
                                      Māţā-for
                                                      killed-hast,
                                                                       all
Havaldar
              said,
                                                                                 people
                             sēndarā ning-nū(sic)
                                                     di-yan
                                                              suō-ning-bēdō.'
su-tonen. To-phulai
                        tē
                                                     house-in thrown-I-have.'
                              cloth
           Therefore
                      this
                                           thy
  say.
                                    idō-dutū?
     Nom
            dong Mata
                            ilī
                   Māţā
                                   drunk-have?
            and
                          liquor
     Thou
            sab-dinā
                                       sēlī
                                             sam-sam-dutū.
    Ning
                        idī-dutū;
                      drinking-am; flesh
                                               eating-am.
      1
            all-days
                                                               timē-sam-sam-ēl
                                                      Mātā
                                                                                    ilī
                  kalārnē-nū
                                   bhātī
                                             nōm
     Mansā
                                                      Māţā
                                                                   Pola-day
                                              thou
                                                                                  liquor
                liquor-seller-of
                                   shop
     Mansā
 idō-dutū?
drunk-have?
                                            mãmung
                                                          Guttā-nū
                                                                       diyan-bō
                                                                                   dutū;
     Timē-sam-sam-ēl ning
                                  sulai
                                                                       house-in
                         I
                                my(sic)
                                              uncle
                                                          Guttā-of
                                                                                    am;
        Pola-day
                                                                           Gulāy
                            kalārnē-nū
                                            bhātī ning
                                                           ur\bar{a}
                                                                  uigī.
                                                                                    pand
Mātā
        budam
                Mansā
                                                                  went.
                                                                           All
                                                                                   false
         with
                 Mans\bar{a}
                          liquor-seller-of
                                             shop
                                                     Ι
                                                           not
Mātā
dutū.
  is.
                  sērāy
                             nōm
                                       iuō?
     Mātā-nū
                                      sawest?
                dead-body
                             thou
     Māṭā-of
                                                                    uigī.
                            jujū
                                             itōō
                                                    ning
                                                            jujū
     Ungam-kā
                   gulāy
                                    uigī;
                                                      I
                                                                    went.
                    all
                            to-see
                                   went; likewise
                                                            to-see
      Villagers
                                        dutū?
     Mātā-phulāy
                     māngsā
                                pārō
       Mātā-to
                       any
                               wound
                                        was?
                                                                           miyā-mui-dan
                        pārā
                                tangayā-nū
                                               māy
                                                       bop-bo
                                                                  dugū,
             mui-rō
     Ōy,
                                                                              another
     Yes,
               one
                       wound
                                  axe-of
                                                his
                                                       head-on
                                                                   was,
                                                                           tunō
                                                                                    iyam
        girē
                                                     sēndarā
                                                                  dugō,
               dutu.
                         Māy
                                 nērī-bō
                                           mui-rō
máy
                                                                          that-on
                                                                                    blood
                                                      cloth
                                                                  was,
 his chest-on
                is.
                         His
                                 body-on
                                             one
                                                māngto.
sa-sada-gū
             dutū.
                      Ning
                               man-sā
                                         urā
                             anything
  attached
               is.
                        I
                                         not
                                                  know.
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FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Did a man called Māṭā live in your village?

Yes he did, but now he is not there.

Where did Māṭā go?

Nowhere. He died.

Did he die from some disease or was he killed?

He did not die from any disease. Somebody killed him.

Who killed him?

How should I know?

The witnesses all say that you have killed him. What do you say to that?

I did not kill him. The witnesses are all tutored. I had no quarrel with Mātā. Why should I kill him?

This axe has been found in your house?

Yes, it is my axe, and therefore it was found in my house.

There is blood attached to the axe?

Yes there is. I had killed a goat and its blood is on it.

This cloth has been found in your house?

The police officer threw it into my house in my presence. I said to him, 'don't do so, master, I shall get into trouble, and the Government will hang me.' The officer said, 'all people say that you have killed Mātā. Therefore I have thrown the cloth into your house.'

Had you and Mātā drunk liquor?

I drink liquor and eat meat every day.

Had you and Mātā drunk liquor in the shop of Mansā, the liquor dealer, on the Poladay?

On the Pola-day I stayed with my uncle Guttā and did not go to Mansā's shop with Māṭā. It is all lies.

Did you see Māṭā's body?

The whole village went to see it, and I went likewise.

Had Mātā any wounds?

Yes, there was a wound of an axe on his head and another one on his chest. He had a single garment on his body, and it was stained with blood. I do not know anything more about it.

STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE LANGUAGES OF THE MUNDA FAMILY.

STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

·			2 93	1			_	1						
E	nglish.			Santālī (Son	thal Par	rganas).	Māhlē (Sont	hal Pargar	nas).	Muņģārī (Ranchi).			
1. One .				Mit' .				Mit' .			Mit', mot', m	īat', mo	yat'	
2. Two .				Bār-ea, bār			٠.	Bār ; bār-eā			Bar-iā, bār			
3. Three				Pä-ā, pä .				Pä ; pä-ā			Api-ā, apī			
4. Four .		•		Pon-eā, pon	÷			Pōn ; pōn-eā			Upun-iā, upu	n (upōn	1)	
5. Five .				Ма̂́га̀ .				Mārā ; mārē-y	7ā .		Mārē .			
6. Six .		•		Turūi .				Turŭi ; turŭi-	yā .		Turūi .			
7. Seven				Ēāe .			•	Eāe .			Eāe .			
8. Eight			•	Irāl .				Īrāl .			Iral(-ia), iril	(-ia)		
9. Nine .	•	•		Ārā .				Ārā .			Are(-a) .		•	
10. Ten .		•		Gäi .				Gäl; gäl-eā			Gäl(-ea) .			
11. Twenty		•		Bār-gāl, isī, n	nit' isī			Bār gāl ; bār kūrī.	gäl-eā ;	isī ;	Hīsī; īsī			
12. Fifty .				Mā̈́r़कें gal, bar	isī gāl			Mārā gāl-eā			Bär hisi gälea			
13. Hundred				Mit' sāe, mẫr	isī			Sāe ; mīt' sāe			Mẫrễ hĩsĩ			
14 . I .				Īñ				Īñ .			Aing, (iñ)			
15. Of me		•,		Īũ-rän, iñ-ak',	etc.			Īñ-ak'; iñ-rak iñ-ich'; iñ-ra	c'; lñ-rē-	ak';	Aing-rēn, aiñ-	ak', etc.		
16. Mine .				Īñ-rän, iñ-ak',	etc.			Īñ-ak', etc.			Aing-rēn, aiñ-	ak, etc.		
17. We .				Ā-bō, ā-bō-n (lä (exclusive)	inclusi	ive) ;	ā-	Ā-bō-(n) ; ā-lä	; ā-līñ ; ;	ā-lâ'n	Ā-bū (inclusiv sive).	e); ā-lē	(exclu	
18. Of us				A-hō-rān, a-lā		ite.		Â-bōn-ak', etc.			Ā-bū-rēn, ā-lē-	rēn, etc		
19. Our .				A-bō-rān, a-lā	-rän, e	to.		Ā-bōn-ak', etc.			Ā-bū-rēn, ā-lē-	rēn, etc		
20. Thou .				Ãm .				Ām .			Ām .			
21. Of thee		•		Ām-rān, etc.				Ām-ak', etc.			Ām-rēn, etc.			
22. Thine		•		Ām-rān, etc.				Åm-ak', etc.			Ām-rēn, etc.			
23. You .				Ā-pä .				Ā-pā; ā-bēn			Ā-pē .			
24. Of you				A-pä-rän, etc.				Ā-pā-ak', etc.			Ā-pē-rēn, etc.			
25. Your .	•			A-pä-rän, etc.				Ā-pā-ak', etc.			Ā-pē-rēn, etc.			
T. & M	-240	-	_											

Birhâr (Sonthal Parg	anas).	Dhangar (Sont	hal Parg	ganas).	Korwā (M	irzapur).	
Mīạt', mīt'		Miat'; mit';	miñat	' (one	Mi(t'), Miat'-ț	āù		
Bār; bāreā .		Bār ; bāreā			Bārī-ṭāń			
Pä; pä-a .		Pä; pä-ā	. ,		Pēi-ṭān .			
Pon; pon-ea .		Pon; pon-ea			Chār .			
Mर्वेंग्डैं ; mर्वेंग्डैं-ā		Mर्डेंहर्बें ; mर्डेहर्बें -ā			Pāñch .			
Tūrūi; tūrūia.		Turūi; turūi-ā			Chha .			
Sāt; eāe .		Sāt .			Sāt .			
Āṭ; īrāl		Āţ			Āṭh .			
Lā; ārā		Lâ .			Nau .	•		
Dās; gāl.		Dâs .			Das .			
Bīs; bār gäl; kūŗī		Mīt' isī; bīs			Bis .			
Poñchās; bār kūŗī d		Bār īsī tālā ; b	ār īsī	dās .	Pachās .			
Sāe		Sā; mārā isi			Saio .			
Īñ	٠.	Īñ			Ing .			
Īñ-īch', iñ-inīch', iñ-rēn, iñ-rinīch', ii	īñ-ak'; ñ-rich'.	Īñ-rēn ; īñ-ak'	; īñ-rē	ak'.	Inan, (ing-rak	')		
iñ-rēak'. Īñ-īch', etc.		Īñ-rēn, etc.			Inanan .			
Ā-bōn, ā-bō; ā-lē		Ā-bū; ā-lē			Ale .			
Ä-bō(n)-ak', etc.		Ā-bū-rēn, etc.			Ale-ra(k')		.•	
Ā-bō(n)-ak', etc.		Ā-bū-rēn, etc.			Ale-ra(k')			
Ām		Ām .			Am .			
Ām-ak', etc		Ām-rēn, etc.			Am-a(k'), (am	-rak')		
Ām-ak', etc		Ām-rēn, etc.			Am-sń-sń			
Ā-pē		Ā-pē			Ape .			
Ā-pē-ak', etc.	٠.	Â-pē-rēn, etc.			Ape-ra(k')		•	
Å-pē-ak', etc		Ā-pē-rēn, etc.		۰ ،	Ape-ra(k')			
					T &			

Kürkü (Amraoti)		. Na	hālī (Ni	imar).		Khariā (Ranchi).					
Miyã		Bidī					Moi, moio	d, mu	фи .		-
Bāriā		Īrā					Ubar, bar	, baria			
Āpai		Moțho .					Upe				
Uphūniā		Nālo					I'pon				
Monoyā		Pāñcho					Moloi				
Turūyā		Chhāh					Tiburu				
Yēyā		Sāto		•		-	Gul				
Ilāriā		Āṭho					Tham				
Ārē		Naw					Tomsing				
Gel; galiā .		Das			•		Gol				
Īsā		Bīs					Bis; ēk	kori			٠
(Āḍhā-īsā; pachās)		Pachās					Pachās;	dui ko	ri das		
(Mono îsā); miā sad	i .	Sadī	• .				Pañch ko	ori ; ek	sai		
Ing		Jo .			. ,		Ing				
Ĩyā		Hingē-țl	ākū				Ing-a				
ĩyā		Hiṅgē		• .			Ing-a	•			
Ālē (exclusive); ābu clusive).	ng (in-	Hingan			•		Aning (d	inolusi	ve);	ele (e	x-
Ālēyā		Hingē-țh	ākū				Aning-a,	etc.		•	
Ālēyā		Hingan	•				Aning-a,	etc.			
Ām	· .	Nē					Am				
Âm-ā		Nē-ṭhāk	ā				Am-a		• , ,		
Ām-ā		Nē.					Am-a	• ,			
Āpē (plural); āpiāg	(dual)	Nākū			• •		Ampe			. .	
Āpēā		Nākū		•			Ampa	•	•		
Āpēā		Ně	·• ·		•		Ampa	٠.	•	• .	

IN THE LANGUAGES OF THE MUNDA FAMILY.

Juāúg	(Dhenks	nal).	Savara (Ganjam).		Gadabā (Bastar).	English.
Min ; eka			Bo; aboi; mi		Mui-rō, (bōyi)	1. One.
Ban; dui			Bāgu; bār .		Bār-jū, (bāgu)	2. Two.
ľin .			Yāgi; yār .		Ig-rō, (yāgi)	3. Three.
Chāri .			Մո՞յն		Uun-rō, (vunigi)	4. Four.
Päñch .			Molloi		Manlëi, (manulëi)	5. Five.
Chhao .			Tuḍru ; turru ·.		Tir, (turigi)	6. Six.
Sāta .			Gulji		Sāt, (guligi)	7. Seven.
Āṭha .			Tamji		Āṭh, (bāgu punza)	8. Eight.
Nao .			Timji, tiñji .		Nou, (bāgu punza bōyi) .	9. Nine.
Daso .			Galji		Das, (galigi)	10. Ten.
Kođi .	•		Bo kodi		Bis, (mika)	11. Twenty.
Dui koḍi da	iso, or	pachās	Bāgu koḍi galji		Pachās, (bāgu mika galigi)	12. Fifty.
Pāñch koḍ	i, or ek	a saha	Bo sua ; molloi kodi		Sou, (monolōyi mika) .	13. Hundred.
Āiā ; āiñje			Ñēn		Ning, (mingu)	14. I.
iñjā .			Ñēn	•	Nîng-nō, (bilangu-na) .	15. Of me.
liñja .			Ñēnāte		Ning-nō, (miṅgu-na) .	16. Mine.
Niñje .			Ellen		Nēing, (bilangu)	17. We.
Niñjā .			Ellen		Pénung, (bilangu-nu) .	18. Of us.
Niñjā .			Ellenāte		Pēnung	19. Our.
Āman-ḍe, i	mde		Aman ; ām .		Nom	20. Thou.
Āman-ḍā, i	imḍā		Aman; nam .		Nom-no	21. Of thee.
Āman-ḍā, i	imḍā		Amanāte .		Nōm-nō	22. Thine.
Hare, (Keo	njkar ā	pere)	Ambē		Nom, (māngu)	23. You.
Har-ā .			Ambenā		Nom-no	24. Of you.
Har-ā .			Ambenāie .		Nom-nō, (bāmbina)	25. Your.

En	glish.			Santālī (Sonthal Parganas).	Māhlē (Sontbal Parganas).	Muņdārī (Ranchi).
26. He .				Ŭn-ī ; āch' (self)	Ūnī ; āch'	Āch', īnī
27. Of him				Ūnī-rān, etc	Ūni-ak', etc	Āch'-rēn, etc
28. His .				Ūnī-rān, etc	Ūnī-ak', etc	Ãch'-rēn, etc
29. They .				Ōn-kō, ā-kō, etc	Ōn-kō, ā-kō ; ūn-kin, ā-kin	Ā-kō, ēn-kō, etc.
30. Of them				Ön-kō-rān, etc	Ōn-kō-ak', etc	Ā-kō-rēn, etc
31. Their		•		Ōn-kō-rän, etc	Ōn-kō-ak', etc.	Ā-kō-rēn, etc
32. Hand				Ti	Ti	Тіһі
33. Foot		•	٠.	Jangā	Jāṅgā	Kaţā
34. Nose .	•	•		ма	Май	Mã
35. Eye .	٠	•	•	Mat'	Mät'	Mät'
36. Mouth		٠		Mochā	Mōchā	Мосћа
37. Tooth	٠	٠		Dāṭā	Dāṭā	Dața
38. Ear .	•	•		Lutur	Lutūr	Lutar
39. Hair .	٠	•	•	Ūp'	Ūp'	$\overline{\mathtt{U}}_{\mathbf{p}'}$
40. Head	•	•		Bâhâk'	Bâhâk'	Bâk' (bâhâk')
11. Tongue	•	•	•	Alāù	A-lân	Alāù
42. Belly		•	•	Lāch'	Lāch'	Lāich'
43. Back	•	•		Dēā	Dēā	Dea, (dãyā)
14. Iron .	•		•	Mārhāt'	Märhät'	Mā̈́rhā̃t'
45. Gold .		•	•	Sonā	Sonā	Samrom (sonā)
16. Silver	•	•		Rupā	Rūpā ; rūpā	Rūpā
17. Father 18. Mother	•	•	•	_	Bābā ; āpā	Āpū
9. Brother		•			Māe; gē; gō; ĕṅgā.	
60. Sister	•	•		Boehā ; dādāt (his elder brother); bākāt (his younger brother).	bākā (younger).	
ol. Man .	•	•		Mīsērā; ājīt (his elder sister); bākāt (his younger sister). Hār; hārāl (male)	Didi (elder); mäsät (his younger).	(younger).
2. Woman		•		Māejiu; āimāi; kūrī	Mānowē ; hār ; hāpāl ; hārār	
11 0.41411	•	•	-		Māyā; āemā; ērā	Kūrī

Bīrhār (Sonthal Parganas).	Dhangar (Sonthal Parganas).	Korwā (Mirzapur).
Ūnī; āch'	Īnī; ạnī; ặch'	Honī
Ūni-ak', etc	Îni-rên, etc	Honi-y-an
Ūnī-ak', etc	Īnī-rēn, etc	Honî-y-an
Ā-kō; ōn-kō	Ēn-kō ; īn-kīn	Hon-ku
Ā-kō-ak', etc.	Ēn-kō-rēn, etc.	Hon-ku-re
Ā-kō-ak', etc	Ēn-kō-rēn, etc.	Hon-ku-re
Ti	Tihi	Ti
Kāṭā	Kaṭā	Kaṭa
Мй	мй	Mũ
Mät'	Mất'	Met'
Mōchā	Mōchā	Āh
Ņāṭā	Dāṭā	Tirîn
Lūtūr	Lutūr	Lutur
Ūp'	Ūp'	υ _p ,
Bāhāk'	Bâhâk'	Bhū
Ālān	Alān	Alang
Lähich'	Lähich'	Puțți
Dēā	Dâyā	Deã
Lōhā	Lohā	Lohā
Sonā	Sonā	Sonā
Rūpā	Rūpā	Chāndī
Bōbā; āpā	Bābā; āpā; āpū-ñ (my); āpū-m (thy); āp(ū)-tēt'	Арра
Āyā; ēngā	(his). Ēngā	Ingā
Boehā; dādā (elder); bāki (younger).	Hāgeā; bōhiā; dādā (elder)	Bhāī; dāda (elder); boho (younger).
Bōehā ērā; dīdī (elder) bākā kūrī (younger).	Dīdī (elder); bâkā-ñ kūrī (my younger).	Dāī (elder); misīn (young- er).
Hấr; häräl	Mānwā; hārā; hār; hārāl	Hor
Brā	Āemāe; ērā	Korî hon

Kūr	kū (Amra	oti).		Nabālī (Nimar). Khariā (Ranc	Khariā (Ranchi).					
Dich' .				Ho O-kar; ho-kar; ha	n-kar					
Dīj-ā .				Hoytarë-thākun O-kar-a		•				
Dīj-ā .				Etarën O-kar-a						
Di-kū .				Но						
Dī-kūā .				Hoytarë-thäkun Ho-ki-a						
Di-kū-ā .				Etarën Ho-ki-a						
Tī .				Boko Ti' .						
Nāṅgā .				Khuri Kata						
Mű .				Choon Romong						
Med; met				Jiki Mod, (Mot') .						
Chābū .				Käggo Tomod, (tomot')						
Tiring .				Mēngē Gone						
Lutur .				Chigām Lutur						
Hup .				Kuguchhī Ului						
Kapār .	.•	•	•	Peng Bokop						
Lāṅg .		٠		Lang Lang						
Lāj .				Popo Lai' (i.e. laich')						
Bhauri .				Bhāwdī Kuṇḍabn (i.e. kuṇḍ	lap') .					
Löh ; lökh	aņļō			Lokhaṇḍo Luaṅg						
(Sunnä)				Sonā Sona						
(Chāndī)				Chāndī Rupa						
Ābā; bā;	bā-te			Ãbā Apa						
Māy; ānte	•			Māy Ma-in						
Dādā, dhā		e r); bō	kō	Dādā (elder), sānu (young- er). Bhai						
Jī-jī (ei (younyer	der);	bōkō	-jī	Bāi Kulamdai .	at					
Kōrō; dota				Manchho Lebu						
Jāpāi .				Kol Konseldu ,						

Ju	šig (D	henk	ual).		Savara	(Ganja:	n).		Gadabā (Bastar).	·		English	
Ār					Anin .				Māy, (novvān)		2	6. He.	
Ār-ā					Aninā .				Māy-nū		2	7. Of him.	
Ār-ā					Anināte .				Māy-nū		. 2	8. His.	
Ār-ki					Aniñji .				Māy-nēn		. 2	9. They.	
Ār-kā					Aniñjinā ; an	iñji-ā			Māyēn-nug .		30	0. Of them.	
Ār-kā					Aniñjināte				Māyēn-nug .		3	1. Their.	
Iti					Si				Tītī, (siyyī) .		. 3	2. Hand.	
Ijiń					Taljen .				Susung, (pāvala)		. 3:	3. Foot.	
Mâtai					Mu .				Mī, (muvvu) .		. 3	4. Nose.	
Emor					Amaḍ, maḍ				Mōō (mā) .		. 3	5. Eye.	
Tamar					To .				Sārmō, (tovō) .		. 3	6. Mouth.	
Gone					Ji				Ginë, (zi)		. 3	7. Tooth.	
Nutur					Lu .				Lintir, (luvvu)		. 3	8. Ear.	٠.
Junta					ΰ				Ingbō, (tikkōyi)		. 3	9. Hair.	
Boko					Bob .				Bōk, (bhā) .		. 4	0. Head.	
Elang					Alā .				Laāṅg, (lāku)		. 4	d. Tongue.	
Itip					Kimpon .				Sulōi, (puṭāni)		. 4	2. Belly.	
Kīnāp					Kiṇḍon .				Gīiḍāṅg, (hāḍumnī)		. 4	3. Back.	
Lūhā					Lwān .				Õsõn, (vummaru)		. 4	4. Iron.	ii.
Sunā					Rana .				Son, (sunnāḍi)		. 4	5. Gold.	
Rupā	•				Rupā .				Rūp (ruppāḍi) .		. 4	6. Silver.	
Bā, or ā	bañji				Wan; wā				Āpāṅg (abbānī)		. 4	7. Father.	
Boira					Yan; yā				Īyōng, (ayyānī)		. 4	8. Mother.	
Kā, or	kaka	(eld	er); bo	ko		lder);	ub	āń	Buāṅg, (annānī)		. 4	9. Brother.	
(young	ger). (elder				(younger). Kāki (elder)	; āyi ((young	er)	Tōnān, (tonnānī)		. 5	io. Sister.	
(young	ger).								Rēmal, (lōk)		. 5	51. Man.	
	uängd				Inselo; selo	100	-		Kumbaī, (gunni)	20		2. Woman.	

Eng	lish.			Santālī	(Sont	hal Par	ganas).		Māblē (S	onth	al Parg	anas).	Mu	ņģārī (Ranch	i).	
53. Wife		•	•	Ērā					Ârak' hâr				Ērā				
54. Child				Gīdrā ; l	ân;	hâpân			Gīdrā ; hâ	pân	98		Hẩn	•			
55. Son .				Hấn; hâ	pân, l	kōŗā h	âpân		Kōrā hâpâ	n			Kōṛā hâ	n			
56. Daughter				Hâpân ĕ	rā, ki	iŗī hâp	ân		Küri hâpâ	n		•	Küri hâ	n			
57. Slave				Golām					Gōlām .			•	Dāsī				
58. Cultivator	•			Chāsā					Chāsā .				Sik' hār	â			
59. Shepherd		•		Gupī					Gūpī .				Māhrā				
60. God .	•			Ţhặkūr ;	bōåg	ŗā.			Ţhākūr .				Sing bon	ıgā			
61. Devil	•			Mārān b spirit)	urū (the m	ounta	in	Sōetān ; bo	ōùgā	١.	٠	Bongā				
62. Sun .		•		Siñ chan	đō				Sĩñ chand	5			Singi, (b	elā)			
63. Moon			•	Ñīndā ch	andō				Nindā cha	ndō			Chandul	c'	•		
64. Star .	•	•	•	Ipīl					Īpil .				Īpil				
55. Fire .		•		Sängäl	•				Sängäl .		•		Sängäl				
66. Water		٠		Dak'	•	•			Dāk'.				Dāk'		•		•
7. House	•	•	٠	Ōŗak'	•	•	•		Ārak' ; ōra	k'		•	Òŗak'		•		
88. Horse				Sadām					Sādâm ; g	hōŗā	i.		Sādām		•		
9. Cow .	•	•		Gặi	•	٠			Gāe ; phēṭā	ăņ (heifer)	Gão		•		
0. Dog .		•	•	Setā	•				Setā .				Setā	•			
1. Cat .	•	•		Pūsī	•	•			Pūsi .				Pūsī	•			
2. Cock .		•		Sīm sāņģ	ī				Sim sāṇḍī				Sạṇḍi sử	m	•		
3. Duck	•		•	Gäḍä	•	•	٠		Gäŗä .				Gäḍä	•			
4. Ass .	•	•	•	Gādhā -		•			Gādhā .		•		Gādā				
5. Camel		•		Ũţ					ữţ.		•		Űţ				
6. Bird .	•	•		Chärä					Chärä .				Chärä			•	
7. Go .	•		•	Chalak';	sänä	k'			Chālāk'.		•		Sän	•	•	•	
				Jâm					Jām .				Jâm	32		21	
'8. Eat .	•					ē.	•							•	•		

Bîrhêr (Sonthal Pa	ırganas).	Dhanga	r (Sont	thal Par	Korwā (Mirzapur).							
Ērā ; ōrak' hār			Ōŗak'-h	âŗ; ē	rā			Airan			•	
Hấpân; hần .			Hân					Chỗrĩ				
Kōrā hāpān .			Kōrā hâ	n				Koṛā ho	poni(c	ch')		
Kūri hāpān .			Kūrī hā	n.		•		Korī hoj	poni(c	h')		
Gölām			Golām		•			Gulām				
Chāsā			Chāsā					Khetiha	rā			
Gūpī	٠.		Bāgāl		٠			Gareri				
Bőngā; sīngī bōng	ζā.		Sĩn bông	jā ; Ţ	hākūr	•		Bhagwā	n			
Mārān būrū; bōng	gā.		Bőngā					Marā				
Singi böngā .	•		Bēr; sīż	bōṅg	ζā			Ber				
Nīdā bōūgā .	•		Nîndā cl	aņģū	ik'			Bango				
Īpil			Īpil					Īpil				
Sēngēl			Sängäl			•		Sengel			•	
Dāk'			Dāk'					Da(k')		•		
Ōrak'			Örak'		•			Oṛa(k')	•			
Sādām	•		Sādām	•`	•	•		Ghorā	•		•	
Gāe			Gāe		٠			Gai			•	
Setā	•		Setā					Kuttū			•	
Pūsī	٠		Pūsī	•	•			Pussi				
Sīm sāṇḍī .	٠		Sặṇḍī sĩi	n		:,		Sim				
Gäḍā	٠		Gäḍä hã	В	٠			Batak	•			
Gādhā	٠		Gādhā	•				Gadahā				
ប៊ីt	•		Ũţ	٠,				Ūņţ				
Chấrẫ	٠		Chäțä	•	•	•		Titi				
Sinok'	•		Sēnok'	•				Chalao-n	ıī	•		•
Jām	٠	.	Jām	•	:			Jomiārā		•		
Dūrūp'			Dūp'					Durup'-1	nī			

Kürkü (Amraoti).	Nahālī (Nimar).	Khariā (Ranchi).
Jāpāī,	Kol	Konseldu
Sānī	Lana	Kondu'
Kön; kön-te	Lānā	Beta
Kon-jë	Perijo	Beți
(Bhāgyā)	Bhāgiyā	Konger
(Ūrā; kisān) .	Kirsan	Silo' lebu
(Gāḍṇ)	Dbankar	Mahara
Gōmōej; gōmōi; gōmaj .	Dēwtā	Parmeswar
Bhagwān	Bhūt	Dubo
Gōmōi; gōmōēj	Diyā dēwtā	Bero
Tende gōmaj	Mindî dêwtâ	Lerang
Ipil	Iphil-tā	Sinkom
Singēl; tsingēl	Āpo	Timsong
Da	Jopo	Da(k')
Ura	Awar	Oo (i.e. ok')
Gürgi	Māw	Ghora
Gai	"Dhōr, dhatṭā	Orei (i.e. orech')
Sītā ; tsītā	Nay	Solo
Minû	Berkū	Bilai
Komba	Kombā	Kokro
Badakō	Heron	Gere
Gadrī	Gadhā	Gadha
Ūņţo	Uņţuţā	Մոր <u>ե</u>
_Titit',, .	Poyață	Konted
Śēnē; bâ	Ēdē	Cho-na
Jome; jijumē	Ţē-bē.	Ñio'
Subāngē	Pētē-bē	Doko-na

Juãng (l	Dhenkana	1).	Savara (Ganjam).	Gadabā (Bastar).	English.
Kutumain ·			Dukri	Kumbai, (kāḍamāni)	53. Wife.
Irhodki .			Ōn; pasi	Õḍu-ōn, (bubbaṇḍī)	54. Child.
Koni, koņḍa			Oner on	Ōḍu-ōn, (bobbangi)	55. Son.
Kan-chilani chilani?)	(i.e.	kon-	Selo on; on selo	Ōnō-ōn, (koḍamlē)	56. Daughter.
Chākor .			Kambāri	Gōtī rēmal, (viṅgārlē) .	57. Slave.
Chasa .			Bāra-mar; oro-mar	Suning, (vorullēru)	58. Cultivator.
Gondā .			G бра-таг	Dhorai, (dunnangbalur) .	59. Shepherd.
Ţhakur .			Kituń ; sōnum	Kītuön, (māprūḍi)	60. God.
Bhūta . ·			Sōaum ; bottoń	Sēarāe, (gussi)	61. Devil.
Belā · . ·	•		Uyun	Sĭi, (kiṭumbu)	62. Sun.
Lerang .			Anai	Arkē, (angayita)	63. Moon.
Koñjelā .			Tu-tui ; tui	Pōṭīg, (ammāru)	64. Star.
Lāi .			Tōgi; to	Suöl, (kuḍām)	65. Fire.
Dā . ·			Д ā́n; dā	Dã, (đã)	66. Water.
Iyã ∙ .			Sun; sin	Piyēn, (āsūn)	67. House.
Ghoḍā .			Kurtā; kuḍtā	Kirkān, (krutā)	68. Horse.
Gāi .			Tanli; tan	Kiitāng, (kuyitāngu)	69. Cow.
Solok .	•		Kinsor; sőr	Ghusē, (kussē)	70. Dog.
Bilai .			Ramen	Girēm, (ramāṅgu)	71. Cat.
Sanke .			Kansim; im	Ghusangḍāng, (tāḍāru) .	72. Cock.
Hansa .			Papāra	Hansā, (gāgu)	73. Duck.
Gadhā .			Pekui	Gadhaī, (gadōḍī)	74. Ass.
Uţa .			Sisalayi	Uțu, (ōțu)	75. Camel.
Konter .			Onti; ti	Piḍī, (poḍī)	76. Bird.
Hanade			Īrā; iya; mā	Iyā, (yō)	77. Go.
Jim		٠.	Jumā ; gā	Sōm, (gā)	78. Eat.
Doko-nā . ·	•	٠.	Gobā; tunkumā	Lēisā, (kukuna)	79. Sit. ·

11 6	Eng	glish.			Santālī	(Sonth	al Par	ganas).	Māhlē (Sonth	al Par	ganas).	М	uņģārī	(Bancl	ni).	
80.	Come				Hijuk'				Hējok'				Hijuk'				
81.	Beat.			•	Dāl				Dāl				Dāl				1
82.	Stand				Tēngō				Těngō				Tingū,	tengō).		
83.	Die .				Gujuk'				Gâjâk'				Gâjâk'	•			
84.	Give		•		Äm				Äm				Äm	•		•	10
85.	Run				Ñir				Nīr ; dōr				Nir				
86.	$\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{p}}$.	٠			Chētan s	äch'			Chētēn ;	chēti	ân		. Chētān				
87.	Near		•		Sōr				Hänät';	phär	ā.		Nande,	(nāŗēc	h')		
88.	Down	•			Latār sā	ch'			Lātār ·		٠		Lātār .		•		
89.	Far .				Pharāk	; sāng	iñ		Sāṅgīñ ;]	phärä	ik		Sāngīn				
90.	Before		•		Lahā-rä				Sāmān ; lahā.	hän	ät'; 1	nātrān	Ayar				
91.	Behind				Tayâm		٠	•	Tāyām		٠		Tāyōm	٠			
92.	Who				Âkāe				Âkāe .				Âkāe		٠		
93.	What	•	•		Okā; ch	ēt'	•		Chēt' ; ok	ā; c	hekān	ak'	Chikana	k'			
94.	Why		٠		Chēt'-iā-	tä			Chēt' khā chēt' iat	tīr ; ē.	chēt'	līch';	Chikạn	mäntë			
95.	And.		•		Ār.		•		Ār				Oro, at',	(ar)			
96.	But .	•	٠		Män-khā	n	•		Män-khān	L			Män-dâ,	(kin-	tū)		
97.	If .	•			—khān				Judi .				—rē				
98.	Yes .		٠	-	Нã				Hã; hã				на			•	
99.	No .				Bāń	•	•		Bān .		•		Kā	•	•		
100.	Alas	•	•		Āhā, hāe			•	Hāe ; hāer	ē		• .	Hāe		٠	• •	
101.	A father				Mit'ţän s	pāt	•		Mīt' āpāt				Āpū-tēt'				
102.	Of a fathe	r			Mit'ţän a	pāt-rä	n, etc		Mīt' āpāt	ak',	etc.		Āpū-tēt'	-rēn, e	etc.		
103.	To a fathe	r			Mit'țän s	pāt-ṭh	än	•	Mit' apât.	țhän			Āpū-tēt'	tak'			
104.	From a fa	ther			Mit'ţän	pāt-k	hấn	•	Mīt' apāt-	ketē			Āpū-tēt'	-etē			
105.	Two fathe	rs			Bār(-eā)	apāt;	apāt-	kin	Bār apāt ;	āpāt	kin		Āpū-kīn				
106.	Fathers		٠		Apāt-kō				Āpāt-kō .		•		Āpā-kō				

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Bīrhār (Sonthal Parganas).	Dhangar (South	al Parge	anas).	Korwā (Mirzapur).		
Hījuk'		Hījūk'.			Vich'-ken-a (came) .	
Rā		Dāl .			Ed-ei-mī	
Tēngō	٠.	Tengō .			Chara-mi	
Gūjuk'		Gâjâk'.			Goch'-ken-a (died) .	
Äm		Ēm .			Oai-mi	
Nir		Nir .			Ingiriārā	
Chētān		Chētān .			Teng-re	
Hēnāt'; phäḍ		Sōrā; nārēch'			Ţhāố	
Lātār		Lātār .			Tosre-y-ā	
Sặngiñ		Sāṇgīn .			Sangiyān	
Sāmān; lāhā		Sāmāù .			Магай-ге	
Tāyām		Tāyām .			Tayom-te	
Âkâe		Âkā́e .			Yāwane	
Chelē		Chiknak'			Chili	
Chelē mān-tē		Chekak'; chik	ā nạtic	h'.	Chili	
Ār		Ār .			Aur	
Män-khān		Män-khān			Taona	
Judī		-khān .			Mānne	
на		нё .			. нã	•
Ка		Kā .			Arowa, (bai)	•
Нае		Hāe ; hāerē			Hāy	•
Mīat' āpō-t		Mīat' āpū-tēt'			Mīat'-ṭān appā	
Mīat' āpō-t-ak', -rēak', -r	ēn	Miat' āpū-tēt'-	ak', etc	c		
Mīat' āpō-t ṭhīch' .		Mīat' āpū-tēt'	țhīn ;	ţhich'		
Mīat' āpō-t ṭhich'-etĕ		Mīat' āpū-tēt' -khẩn ; -khẩc	țhich' h'.	hātē ;		
Bāreā āpō-t; āpō-t-kīn		Bār āpū; āpū-	kin		Bāri-ṭān appuyā	
Āpō-t-kō		Āpū-kō .			Bonom appuyā	

Kürkü (Amraot	i).	Nahālī ((Nimar).		Khariā (Ranchi).			
Hějē		Piyā .			De-na; ai-	na .		
Kwāgē		Koṭṭo-bē			Gil .			
Ţenginē		Chipo-bē			Tongon .			
Gōi-ē		Bēţo-bē			Goi' (i.e.,	goch')		
Īlē		Bē-bē .			Ter .	• :		
Saurubē		Chergo-bē			Iar .			
Len		Lēgē			Toblung .			
Mērān		Boṇḍē .			Hepad .			
Itān		Bhītarkē			Tuta .			
Lańkā ; dillī ; sāṅgir	ı .	Bhāgā-dhāwā			Disa .			
Sutu-kin .		Chainī .			Seng .			
Tāwen . · .		Pāchhlā .			Lodo .			
Yē		Nāni .			Ber .		•	
Chōch'		Nānko .			Ι			
Chōjikā		Bīchā .			Ina .			
Šţā; dō		Do .			Oŗo .			-
Mētin		Pin .				····		-
Dären		Jopāţke .			Hole .	٠		
Hē;ãã; jī; woī		нã .			на .			
Bang; he-bang; bak	i .	Bēko .			Umbo .			-
Hãy hãy) .		Hā .			Haere .			
Ābā		Bidī ābā			Apa .			
Åbā		Bidī ābān			Apa-ga; (-8	ı) .		
Abā-ken, ābā-kē		Bidī ābā-kē			Apa-ge, (-te	e) .		
Abā-ten, ābā-tē		Bidî ābā-kū			Apa-te, (-te	ei) .		
Bāriā ābā; ābā-king	-	Īr ābā-ṭā			Baria apa-ja	ar .		
bā-kō		Ābā-ṭā .		-	Apa-ki .			

Juâng (Dhenkanal).	Savara (Ganjam).	Gadabā (Bastar).	English.
Wade-nā	Erayi ; irayi ; jāyi	Alō, (vāyi)	80. Come.
Abhaje	Tidā	Bugtō, (lā)	81. Beat.
Tonga-nā	Tananā	Tunōn, (tināṅgu)	82. Stand.
Gojude	Kie ; kiā	Gōigu, (kittuḍam)	83. Die.
Dinge-de	Ti	Bēyē, (tāyi)	84. Give.
Dhapat	. Duḍu-ḍuḍu ira	Dũā, (yavu)	85. Run.
Aling-ta	Lankān	Tōmnāng, (hattu)	86. Up.
Hākâ	. Adam	Ōḍōg, (ravugā)	87. Near.
Ade-tā	Jaitan	Älung, (hakki)	. 88. Down,
Lenkā	. Sanayi	Sulöng, (sangāyi)	89. Far.
Aga-tā	. Aman-ban	Sē̃isēi (ammāṅgu)	90. Before.
Hacha-tā	Kindon-ban	Giiḍāṅg, (lakki)	91. Behind.
Adi	. Bote	Lāī, (mōyi)	92. Who.
Biri	Jite; ēte	Lāī, (nayita)	93. What.
Biri-te	. Ētenāsan ; ētāsan	Mang-pulai, (nāyi-duvāru)	94. Why.
Pher, aur	Bāran	Miyỗ, (bāhar)	95. And.
	- do		96. But.
Jiminti, or jebe .	en-den	·······	. 97. Lf.
Hỗ	. Ō; oḍe	Ungtēn, (ōō)	98. Yes.
Nāu	. Ayi; ejja	Urāk, (yīk)	99. No.
Ahā	Agāi	Āhā	100. Alas,
Muind abañji	. Wān ; wānan	Āpāṅg, (bōyi ayāṅgu) .	101. A father.
Muin-dar bâbār	Wān-ā	Āpāng-nō, (nēn bōyi ayāṅʒu).	102. Of a father.
Muin-de bâbam-te	. Wān-ba	Āpāṅg-nō	103. To a father.
Muin-de bâbam-tā	. Wan-ba-sitle	Āpāṅg-nō ōḍōn, (metār ayāṅgu).	104. From a father.
Joḍāmi bâbañji	Bāgu wāń-ji		105. Two fathers
Bâbār ki	. Wān-ji	Löngā āpöṇg, (ayāṅgu-ni)	106. Fathers.

English.		Santāli (Sonthal Parganas).	Māblē (Sonthal Parganas).	Muņḍārī (Banchi).
107. Of fathers .		Apāt-kō-rān, etc.	Āpāt-kō-ak', etc	Āpū-kō-rēn, etc.
108. To fathers .		Apāt-kō-ṭhān	Āpāt-kō ṭhān	Āpū-kō
109. From fathers .		Apāt-kō-khān	Āpāt-kō-ketē	Āpū-kō-etē
110. A daughter .		Mit'tän hâpân ērā	Mīt' hâpān ērā	Kūrī hān
111. Of a daughter .		Mit'tän hâpân ērā-rän, etc.	Mīt' hâpān ērā-ak', etc	Kŭṛī-hān-rēn, etc
112. To a daughter .		Mit țän hâpân ērā-țhän .	Mīt' hâpān ērā thān .	Kūrī-hān
113. From a daughter		Mit'tän hâpân ērā-khān .	Mīt' hâpân ērā-ketē	Kūrī hān-etē
114. Two daughters .		Bār(-eā) hâpân ērā ; hâpân ērā-kīn.	Bār hâpān ērā ; hâpān ērā- kīn.	Bāriā kūŗī hān
115. Daughters .		Hâpân ērā-kō	Hâpân ērā-kō	Kūrī hān-kō
116. Of daughters .		Hâpân ērā-kō-rān	Hâpân ērā-kō-ak', etc.	Kūrī hān-kō-rēn, etc.
117. To daughters .		Hâpân ērā-kō-ṭhän	Hâpân ērā-kō-ṭhān	Kūrī hān-kō
118. From daughters		Hâpân ērā-kō-khān	Hâpân ērā-kō-ketē	Kūrī hān-kō-etē
119. A good man .	-	Mit'ṭān bogē hār	Mīt'ṭēn bēs hār	Būgīn hấpấ
120. Of a good man .	-	Mit'ṭān bogē hār-rān, etc	Mīt'tēn bēs hār-ak', etc.	Būgin hārā-rēn, etc.
121. To a good man .		Mit'tän bogō hāṛ-thän .	Misten bes har thän	Būgīn hārā
122. From a good man		Mit'tän bogē hāṛ-khān .	Mīt'ṭēn bēs hār-ketē .	Būgīn hārā-etē
123. Two good men .		Bār(-eā) bogē hār; bogē hār-kīn.	Bāreā bēs hār	Bügin hârâ-kin
124. Good men .		Bogë hấr-kô	Bēs hār-kō	Būgīn hārā-kō
125. Of good men .		Bogë hâr-kō-rän, etc.	Bēs hār-kō-ak'	Būgīn hārā-kō-rēn
126. To good men .		Bogē hấr-kō-thắn	Bēs hār-kō ṭhān	Būgīn hārā-kō
127. From good men		Bogë hār-kō-khān	Bēs bār-kō-ketē	Būgin hấpấ-kō-etē
128. A good woman .		Mit'țăn bogē māejīu	Mīt'ṭēn bēs āemä	Bügin küri
129. A bad boy .		Mit'ţān barich' kōrā	Mit'tën kharap kora	Et'kan kōrā
130. Good women .		Bogē māejiu-kō	Bēs āemā-kō	Bügin küri-kö.
131. A bad girl .		Mit'țăn barich' kūrī	Mīt'ţēn khārāp kūrī	Et'kan kūrī
132. Good		Bogē, bhagē	Bäs; bāgä; jūt	Būgin
133. Better		-khẩn bogē	-ketē bēs	-etē būgīn
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Bīrbār (Sonthal Parganss).	Dhangar (Sonthal Parganas).	Korwā (Mirzapur).
Āpō-t-kō-ak', etc	Āpū-kō-ak', etc.	
Āpō-t-kō thich'	Āpū-kō ṭhīch', etc	
Āpō-t-kō ṭhīch'-etē	Āpū-kō hātē, etc	
Miat' hấpẩn ērā	Miat' kūrī hān	Mīat'-ṭāṅ kōrī hoponi(ch') .
Mīat' hāpān ērā-ak', etc	Mīat' kūrī hān-ak', etc	
Miat' hấpấn ērā thích' .	Miat' kūrī hān thich', etc	s es (3)
Mīat' hāpān ērā thīch'-etē	Mīat' kūrī hân hātē, etc	
Bāreā hāpān ērā	Kūrī hān-kīn	Bāri-ṭān kōṛī hoponi(ch') .
Hấpấu ērā-kō	Kūrī hān-kō	Bonom köri hopon-kü
Hấpẩn ễrā-kō-ak', etc.	Kūŗī hā̂n-kō-ak', etc	
Hâpân ērā-kō thích'	Kūrī hān-kō thích', etc.	
Hāpān ērā-kō thích'-etē .	Kūrī hān-kō hātē, etc.	
Mīat' bōgē hār	Mīat' bōgē hārā	Miat'-ţān chikan körā hon .
Miat' bōgē hār-ak', etc	Miat' bōgē hārā-ak', etc	
Miat' bögë bâr thich'	Mīat' bōgē hārā thich', etc.	
Mīat' bōgē hār ṭhīch'-etē .	Mīat' bōgē hārā hātē, etc	
Bāreā bōgē hār	Bōgē hārā-kīn	Bāri-tāṇ chīkan kōrā hopon
Bōgē hār-kō	Bōgē hārā-kō	Bonom chikan hor-kū .
Bōgē hār-kō-ak', etc	Bōgē hấrấ-kō-ak', etc.	
Bögē hār-kō-thich'.	Bōgē hārā-kō thích', etc.	
Bōgē hār-kō thīch'-etē .	Bōgē hārā-kō hātē, etc.	, .,
Miat' bōgē ērā	Mīat' bōgē āemāe	Chikan köri hon
Mīat' bājūt-kōrā	Mīat' kharāp kōrā	Műrukh körá chỗrí
Bōgē ērā-kō	Bōgē āemāe-kō	Bonom chikan köri hon .
Miat' bäjūt kūri	Miat' kharap küri	Mūrukh kōrī chỗrī
Bōgē; bēs;-jūt	Bōgē	Chikan
etë bōgë	-hātē bōgē	Khūb chikan

Kürkü (Amraoti).			. Nahālī (Ni	mar).		Khariā (Ranch	i).	
Ābā-kō-ā .			Ābāe-ţā .			Apa-ki-a			
Ābā-kō-ken .			Ābā-ītal-kē			Apa-ki-te		ı.	
Ābā-kō-ten			Ābā-ītal-kū			Apa-ki-tai			
Kon-jē			Bidī pērijo			Beți .			
Kon-jē-ā			Bidī pērijo-kū			Beți-a .			
Kōn-jē-ken .			Bidī pērijo-kū			Beți-te .	•		
Kōn-jē-ten : .			Bidî përijo-tën			Beți-tei .			
Kōn-jē-king .			Ir pērijā-ţā			Ubar beți-jar			
Kōn-jē-kō .			Pērijā-ṭā			Beți-ki .	•		
Kōn-jē-kō-a .			Pērānān			Beți-ki-a	•	•	
Kön-jē-kō-ken		٠.	Pērāṭon-ko			Beți-ki-te		•	
Kōn-jē-kō-tē .			Pērāṭoṅ-ko			Beți-ki-tei			
Awal körö .			Bidī awalkā m	ānchho		Bes lebu	•	٠	
Awal körö-a .			Bidī awalkā m	ānchho		Bes lebu-a			
Awal körö-ken			Bidī awalkā m	ānchho	-kē .	Bes lebu-te		٠	
Awal körö-tē .			Bidī awalkā m	ānchho	-kū	Bes lebu-tei			
Awal körö-king			Ir awalkā mān	chhā .		Baria bes leb	a .		
Awal körö-kö .			Awalkā mānel	nhā .		Bes lebu-ki			
Awal körö-kö-a	•		Awalkā mānel	hhā-ēţē	n .	Bes lebu-ki-s			
Awal körö-kö-ken			Awalkā mānel	hhā-thil	-kē	Bes lebu-ki-t	е.	٠	
Awal körö-kö-të		<i>'</i> .	Awalkā māne	hhā-thi	l-kū	Bes lebu-ki-t	ei		,
Awal jāpāy .			Bidī awalkā ko	ol .		Bes konsel	٠	•	
Bākā pohar .			Bidī ējē rāņḍā			Um-bes kong	er		
Awal jäpäy-kö			Awalkā kolāţē	n .		Bes konsel-ki		٠	
Bākā tārē .			Bidī pērījāņḍā			Um-bes kons	el ·	•	
Awal ·			Awalkā .	٠٠.		Bes	•		
Dusaro-ten awal			Awalkā .			Oro bes .			

Juāng (Dhenkanal).		Savara (Ganjam).	Gadabā (Bastar).	English.
Bâbār-kir	-	Wān-jinā	Lõngā āpöng-nö	107. Of fathers.
Bâbām-ke-te		Wāń-jin-ba	Lōṅgā āpōṅg-nō	108. To fathers.
Bâbām-ki-ta		Wāń-jin-ba-sitle	Löngā āpong ödön	109. From fathers.
Muin-ḍa kan-chelāṇḍ		Ōn selo	Ōnō-ōn, (koḍamlē)	110. A daughter.
Muin-dar kan-chelāṇḍar		Ŏn selonā	Ōnō-ōn, (nën bốyi koḍamlē)	111. Of a daughter.
Muin-de kan-chelāṇḍ-te		Ōn selon-ba		112. To a daughter.
Muin-de kan-chelāṇḍ-ta		Ōn selon-ba-sitle	Önō-ön-öḍōn, (metār koḍamlē).	113. From a daughter.
Joḍāmi kan-chelāṇḍ .		Bāgu ōn selo	Bār ōnō-ōn, (bāgu kodamlē)	114. Two daughters.
Kan-chelāṇḍ-ki .		Ōn selon-ji	Ōnō-ōn, (koḍam-lē-nī) .	115. Daughters.
Kan-cheländ-kir		Ōn selon-jinā	Ōnō-ōn-nō	116. Of daughters.
Kan-chelāṇḍ-ke-te		Ōn selon-jin-ba	Ōnō-ōn-nō	117. To daughters.
Kan-chelāṇḍ-ki-ta .		Ōn selon-jin-ba-sitle	Ōnō-ōn-ōḍōn	118. From daughters.
Muind dia loka .		Bańsā maņḍrā	Lēkō rēmal, (lē lōk)	119. A good man.
Muinḍar ḍia lokar .		Bańsā maṇḍrānā	Lēkō rēmal-nō	120. Of a good man.
Muin-de dia loka-te .		Baŭsā maṇḍrā-ba	Lēkō rēmal-nō	121. To a good man.
Muin-de dia loka-ta .		Bańsā maņḍrān-sitle	Lēko rēmal-nō odon	122. From a good man.
Joḍāmi, or ban, ḍia, loka		Bāgu bansā maņdrā-ji .	Bārjū lēkō rēmal	123. Two good men.
Dia lokar-ki		Bańsā maṇḍrā-jī	Lēko rēmal, (lē lōk-dukēyi)	124. Good men.
Dia lokar-kir		Bańsā maņḍrā-jinā	Lēkō rēmal-nō	125. Of good men.
Dia loka-ke-te		Bańsā maṇḍrā-ji-ba	Lēko rēmal-nō	126. To good men.
Dia loka-ki-ta		Bansā maņdrā-ji-ba-sitle .	Lēkō rēmal ōḍōn	127. From good men.
Muin-ḍar ḍia juāṅg-ḍe		Bansā selo	Lēkō kumbaī, (bōyi lē gunni).	128. A good woman.
Muin-ḍar whāde ḍia-jenā	٠.	Anar rabalan; gassiā rabalan.	Yōrō ōōn, (Lē-nāḍu araḍān)	129. A bad boy.
Dia juāng-dar-ki		Bańsā selo-ji	Löngā lēkō kumbaī-nan (lē gunni-tēr).	130. Good women.
Muin-ḍar loki ḍia-jenā		Anar selo pasi	Yērō önōōn, (lē gunitēr araḍān).	131. A bad girl.
Dia		Bańsā ; ambase	Lēkō, (lē)	132. Good.
Ati dia			Lōṅgā lēkō, (āsār)	133. Better.
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	Engl	isb.			Santālī (Sonthal Parganas).	Māhlē (Sonthal Parganas).	Muņģārī (Ranchi).
134. E	Best				Jâtā-khān bogē ; bogē utār.	Sānām-ketē bēs	Būgin utār
135. E	High				Usül	Phāngā; ūsūl; mārān .	Salangi, (ūsūl)
136. H	ligher				-khấu usúl	-ketē ḍhāṅgā	-etē salangi
137. H	Lighest				Jâtā-khāu usūl	Sinām-ketē dhāngā	Salangi utār
138. A	horse				Mit'tän sadām	Mīt'ţēn (ā̈ṛiā) sādām .	Sādām
139. A	mare				Mit'tän ënga sadām, sadām ēnga.	Mīt'tēn ēṅgā sādām; sādām ēṅgā.	Ēngā sādām
140. H	Iorses				Sadām-kō	Sādām-kō	Sādām-kō
141. M	Iares	•	•		Ēṅgā sadām-kō	Ēngā sādām-kō	Ēngā sādām-kō .
142. A	bull		•	٠	Mit'ţān ḍaṅgrā	Mīt'ţēn ḍhākār; ūrich' .	Āṇḍiā
143. A	. cow				Mit'ţän gại	Mit'țēn gâe	Gāe
144. B	ulls		•		Ņangrā-kō	рhākā̂r-kō	Aṇḍiā-kō
145. C	ows				Gāi-kō	Gāe-kō	Gāe-kō
146. A	dog	•			Mit'țän setă	Mīt'ṭēn setā	Setā
147. A	bitch				Mit'tän ēṅgā setā	Mīt'ţēn pilī setā	Ēngā setā
148. D	logs		•		Setā-kō	Setā-kō	Setá-kō
149. B	itches				Ēngā setā-kō	Pilī setā-kō	Ēngā setā-kō
150. A	he goat				Mit'ţän bodā	Mīt'tēn bodā	Bakṛā
151. A	female g	coat			Mit'ţän märâm	Mīt'tēn ēngā mārām .	Ēngā mārām
152. G	oats		•		Märâm-kō	Märām-kō	Märâm-kō
153. A	male de	er			Mit'ṭān āṇḍiā jēl	Mīt'ţēn ẫriā harīn	Saņģi jīlū
154. A	female d	leer			Mit'tän eogā jēl	Mīt'tēn ēngā harīn	Ēngā jīlā
155. D	eer -	•			Jel	Harīn-kō ; nīr-kō	Jilū-kō
156. I	am			•	Menā-ñ-ā, henā-ñ-ā,-kan- ā-ñ, etc.	Mēnēñ-ē ; hänäñ-ē ;-ken-īñ ; kān-īñ.	Mēnak'-iñ-a,-tan-a-ing, etc.
157. TI	hou art				Menā-m-ā	Mēnām-ā ; -kânām, etc	Mēnak'-mē-ā
158. He	e is				Menā-e-ā	Mēnēyē; mēnak'-a (inani- mate); -kenē; -kānā	Mēnak'-i-ā
159. W	e are				Menak'-bō(n)-ā, etc.	(inanimate), etc. Mēnak'-bōn-ā ; -kan-ā-bōn ; ken-bōn, etc.	Mēnak'-bū-ā
160 V	ou are				Menak'-pä-ā	Mēnak'-pä-ā; -kan-ā-pä;	Měnak'-pē-ä

Eirhâr (Sonthal Parganas).	Dhangar (Sonthal Parganas).	Korwā (Mirzapur),
Jâtâ etē bōgē	Jātā hātē bogē	
Ūsāl	Ūsūl	Usūl-ā
-etē ūsūl	-hātē ūsūl	Khūb usūl-ā
Jâtâ etē ūsūl	Jātā hate ūsūl.	*****
Mīat' sādām	Mīat' sādām	Ghōṛā
Mīat' sādām ēngā	Mīat' ēṅgā sādām	Ghōrī
Sādām-kō	Sādām-kō	Bonom ghōṛā-kū
Sādām ēngā-kō	Ēngā sādām-kō	Bonom ghōṛī-kū
Mīat' dāngrā	Mīat' ūrīch'; sā̈́r	Sãr
Mīat' gāe	Mīat' gāe	Gāi
Ņāṅgrā-kō	Ūrich'-kō	Bonom sār
Gāe-kō	Gāe-kō	Bonom gāi-kū
Mīat' setā	Mīat' setā	Kuttā
Mīat' ēṅgā setā	Mīat' ēṅgā setā	Кофі
Setā-kō	Setā-kō	Bonom kuttū-kū
Ēngā setā-kō	Ēogā setā-kō	Bonom koţī-kū
Mīat' bōdā	Mīat' bōdā	Bokrā
Mīat' mārām ēngā	Mīat' ēṅgā mārām	Merom
Märâm-kō	Märâm-kō	Bonom merom-kā
Mīat' sāṇḍī jēlō	Mīat' āṇḍīā hạrīn	Saram jhāku
Mīat' ēngā jēlō	Miat' ĕṅgā bạrīn	Saram
Jēlō-kō	Harin-kō	Saram
Mēnāñ-a ; -kān-ā-ñ	Mēnak'-īñ-ā; hēnak'-īñ-ā; -tān-īñ.	Ing (idān-ā)
Mēnak'-mē-ā; -kān-ā-m .	Mēnak'-mē-ā ; -tān-ā-m .	Am (īdān-ā)
Mēnāe-ā; -kān-ā-e	Mēnak'-e-ā ; -tān-īch' .	Honī (īdān-ā)
Mēnak'-bōn-ā ; -kān-ā-bōn .	Mēnak'-bū-ā ; -tān-ā-bū	Alē (īdān-ā)
Mēnak'-pē-ā; -kān-ā-pē .	Mēnak'-pē-ā ; -tān-ā-pē	Ape (īdān-ā)

Kürkü (A	Amraot	i).	. Nahālī (N	imar).		Khariā (F	anchi).	_	
Sabō-ten awal		•		Awalkā .			Khub bes			
(Ū̃nchā)				Ūchā .			Jhalong .			
				Ūchā .			Aur jhalong			
				Ūchā .			Khub jhalong	•		
Gürgi .				Bidī jākoto mā	iu		Ghora .			
Jāpāi gūrgi	• .			Bidī kol māu			Ghori .			
Gürgi-kö				Jākoto māu-ṭā			Ghora-ki			
Jāpāi gūrgi-k	ō			Kol māu-ţā			Ghori-ki			
Dōbā				Bidī baddī			Sãr .			
Gāi .			•	Bidī dhottā			Orei; gai			
Dōbā-kō .	•			Baddī-ţā		•	Sãr-ki .			
Gāī-kō			-	Dhottā .			Orei-ki .			
Sītā . •				Bidī jākoto nā	7		Solo .			
Jāpāi sītā				Bidī kol nāy			Koți solo		•	
Sītā-kō .				Jākoţo nāy-ţā			Solo-ki .			
Jāpāi sītā-kō				Kol nāy-tā			Koți solo-ki			
Bōkrā .				Bidī bakrā	•		Bakra merom			
Sirī .				Bidī chhirī			Burhi merom			
Bōkrā-kō				Bakrā-ţā			Merom-ki			
Darkār chītalī				Jākoţo haran			Selhop .			
Jāpāi chītali				Kol haran			Burhi selhop			
Chītalī .		•		Haran-tã			Selhop-ki			
Ing tijkā				Jo kā .			Ing Kharia-ge l Khariā).	siág ((I am	a
Am tikya				Nē kā .			Am Kharia-ge	kem		
Di tikya			-	Hoi tan-kē			O-kar Kharia-g	e ke		
Ābung tākā-kō	5			Jo kā .			Ele Kharia-ge l	ce-le		
Āpē tijā-kō				Nē kā .			Ampe Kharia-g	e ke-	pe	

Besi dia	Juâng (Dheakanal).	Savara (Ganjam).	Gadabā (Bastar).	English.
Ati jālhing	Besi dia		Lõngā lēkō, (nimmānu lē) .	134. Best.
Besi jālhiāg	Jälhing	Lankā	Tīr, (ḍuṅku)	135. High.
Ghoḍā Kurtā Kirtāk, (krutā) 138. A horse. Ghoḍi Yāṅ kurtā Iyôṅkā kirtāk, (kavun 139. A mare. krutā). Ghoḍar-ki Kurtā-ji Löṅgā kirtāk, (māḍu krutā) 140. Horses. Ghoḍar-ki Yāṅ kurtā-ji Löṅgā jroṅkā, kirtāk, (māḍu krutā) 141. Mares. avun krutā). Muindar saṇḍha Tahli Bāḍi, (taṅgili) 142. A bull. Muindar gāi Yāṅ-tāh Kiitāṅg, (kuyitāṅgu) 143. A cow. Saṇḍhar-ki Tahli-ji Loṅgā bāṇḍi 144. Bulls. Gāir-ki Yāṅ-tahli-ji Loṅgā kiitāṅg 145. Cows. Muindar aṇḍir solok Kinsor Ghusō, (kuṣsō) 146. A dog. Muindar taki solok Yāṅ kinsor; inselo kinsor Buli ghusō, (āvun kussō) 147. A bitoh. Solok-ḍe-ki Kinsor-ji Loṅgā ghusō, (kuṣsō-digan) 148. Dogs. Taki solok-ḍe-ki Inselo kinsor-ji Loṅgā ghusō, (kuṣsō-digan) 149. Bitches. Muindar bodā Kimme; me Gimē, (gaṇḍrā kimmē) 150. A he goat. Muindar merām Yāṅ-me Iyōṅgā mē, (kimmē-digan) 152. Goats. Muindar māi harīna	Ati jālhing		Lõngā tīr, (bāra dunku) .	136. Higher.
Ghoḍi Yāṅ kurtā Iyonkā kirtāk, (āvun laga kirtāk, (hadu krutā) 140. Horses. Ghoḍar-ki Kurtā-ji Lōṅgā kirtāk, (māḍu krutā) 140. Horses. Ghoḍir-ki Yāṅ kurtā-ji Lōṅgā iyonkā, kirtāk, (māḍu krutā) 141. Mares. āvun krutā). Muindar saṇḍha Tahli Bāḍi, (taṅgili) 142. A bull. Muindar gāi Yāṅ-tāṅ Kiitāṅg, (kuyitāṅgu) 143. A cow. Saṇḍhar-ki Tahli-ji Loṅgā kiitāṅg 144. Bulls. Gāir-ki Yāṅ-tahli-ji Loṅgā kiitāṅg 145. Cows. Muindar aṇḍir solok Kinsor Ghusō, (kuṣsō) 146. A dog. Muindar taki solok Yāṅ kinsor; inselo kinsor Buli ghusō, (āvun kussō) 147. A bitoh. Solok-ḍe-ki Kinsor-ji Loṅgā ghusō, (kuṣsō-digan) 148. Dogs. Taki solok-ḍe-ki Inselo kinsor-ji Loṅgā buli ghusō, (āvun kussō) 147. A bitoh. Muindar bodā Kimme; me Gimē, (gaṇḍrā kinmē) 150. A he goat. Muindar merām Yāṅ-me Iyōṅgmē, (āvun kinmē) 151. A female goat. Bodār-ki Kimme-ji Loṅgā jimō, (kimmē-digan) </td <td>Besi jālhing</td> <td></td> <td>Lōṅgā tīr, (nimān ḍuṅku)</td> <td>137. Highest.</td>	Besi jālhing		Lōṅgā tīr, (nimān ḍuṅku)	137. Highest.
	Ghoḍā	Kurtā	Kirtāk, (krutā)	138. A horse.
Ghoḍir-ki Yāṅ kurtā-ji . Lōṅgā iyohkā, kirtāk, (māḍu lat. Muindar saṇḍha . Taṅli Bāḍi, (taṅgiļi) 142. A bull. Muindar gāi . Yāṅ-tāṅ	Ghoḍi · · ·	Yān kurtā		139. A mare.
Savan krutā). 142. A bull. Muindar saṇḍha Taāli Bāḍi, (taṅgɨji) 142. A bull. Muindar gāi Yāṅ-tāñ Kiitāṅg, (kuyitāṅgu) 143. A cow. Saṇḍhar-ki Taāli-ji Loṅgā bāṇḍi 144. Bulls. Gāir-ki Yāṅ-tahli-ji Loṅgā kiitāṅg 145. Cows. Muindar aṇḍir solok Kinsor Ghusō, (kuṣsō) 146. A dog. Muindar taki solok Yāṅ kinsor; inselo kinsor Buli ghusō, (āvun kussō) 147. A bitch. Solok-de-ki Kinsor-ji Loṅgā ghusō, (kussō-digan) 148. Doga. Taki solok-de-ki Inselo kinsor-ji Loṅgā ghusō, (kussō-digan) 149. Bitches. Muindar bodā Kimme; me Gimē, (gaṇḍrā kinmē) 150. A he goat. Muindar merām Yāṅ-me Iyōṅgmē, (āvun kinmē) 151. A female goat. Bodār-ki Kimme-ji Loṅgā gimō, (kinmē-digan) 152. Goats. Muindar singāl harina Pargḍāp Harnā, (tēram ālu) 153. A male deer. Harina Yāṅ pargḍāp Harnī, (āvun, ālu) 154. A female deer. Harina Pargḍāp-ji	Ghoḍar-ki	Kurtā-ji	Löngā kirtāk, (māḍu krutā)	140. Horses.
Muindar gāi . Yāṅ-tāṅ	Ghodir-ki	Yān kurtā-ji		141. Mares.
Sandhar-ki . Tanli-ji . Longā bāndī . 144. Bulls. Gāir-ki . Yān-tanli-ji . Longā kiitāng . 145. Cows. Muindar andir solok . Kinsor . Ghusō, (kuṣsō) . 146. A dog. Muindar taki solok . Yān kinsor; inselo kinsor . Bulī ghusō, (āvun kussō) . 147. A bitch. Solok-de-ki . Kinsor-ji . Longā ghusō, (kussō-digan) . 148. Dogs. Taki solok-de-ki . Inselo kinsor-ji . Longā bulī ghusō, (āvun kussō-digan) . 149. Bitches. Muindar bodā . Kimme; me . Gimē, (gaṇḍrā kinmē) . 150. A he goat. Muindar merām . Yān-me . Longā gimē, (kinmē-digan) . 151. A female goat. Bodāt-ki . Kimme-ji . Longā gimē, (kinmē-digan) . 152. Goats. Muindar singāl harina . Pargdāp . Harnā, (tēram ālu) . 153. A male deer. Muindar māi harina . Pargdāp . Harnā, (āvun, ālu) . 154. A female deer. Harina . Pargdāp-ji . Longā harnā, (ālu) . 155. Deer. Äiñje āsike, or idame . Ñēn daku; dako-taī . Ning dutu, (mingu-nē-ku) . 156. I am. Āmde m-āsike, or ināin . Aman daku; dako-te . Māy dutu, (no duku) . 158. He is.	Muindar saṇḍha .	Tanli	Bāḍi, (taṅgiḷi)	142. A bull.
Găir-ki Yan-tanli-ji Longā kiitāng	Muindar gāi	Yān-tān	Kiitāng, (kuyitāngu) .	143. A cow.
Muindar andir solok . Kinsor	Saṇḍhar-ki	Tanli-ji	Lõngā bāṇḍī	144. Bulls.
Muindar taki solok . Yān kinsor; inselo kinsor . Buli ghusō, (āvun kussō) . 147. Ā bitch. Solok-ḍe-ki . Kinsor-ji . Lōngā ghusō, (kussō-ḍigan) 148. Doga. Taki solok-ḍe-ki . Inselo kinsor-ji . Lōngā buli ghusō, (āvun kussō-ḍigan). Muindar bodā . Kimme; me . Gimē, (gaṇḍrā kinmē) . 150. Ā he goat. Muindar merām . Yān-me . Iyōngmē, (āvun kinmē) . 151. Ā female goat. Bodār-ki . Kimme-ji . Lōngā gimē, (kinmē-ḍigan) 152. Goats. Muindar singāl harina . Pargḍāp . Harnā, (tēram ālu) . 153. Ā male deer. Muindar māi harina . Yān pargḍāp . Harnī, (āvun, ālu) . 154. Ā female deer. Harina Pargḍāp-ji . Lōngā harnā, (ālu) . 155. Deer. Āiñjē āsike, or iḍame . Ñēn ḍaku; ḍako-te . Nōm ḍutu, (bābin-bō-ku) . 157. Thou art. Ār āsike, or iḍame . Anin ḍaku; ḍako-te . Māy ḍutu, (no ḍuku) . 158. He is.	Gāir-ki	Yāń-tańli-ji	Löngā kiitāng	145. Cows.
Solok-de-ki . Kinsor-ji . Löngā ghusō, (kussō-digan) 148. Dogs. Taki solok-de-ki . Inselo kinsor-ji . Löngā bulī ghusō, (āvun ligan). Muindar bodā . Kimme; me . Gimē, (gandrā kinmē) . 150. A he goat. Muindar merām . Yān-me . Iyōngmē, (āvun kinmē) . 151. A female goat. Bodār-ki . Kimme-ji . Löngā gimē, (kinmē-digan) . 152. Goats. Muindar singāl harina . Pargdāp . Harnā, (tēram ālu) 153. A male deer. Muindar māi harina . Yān pargdāp Harnī, (āvun, ālu)	Muindar aṇḍir solok .	Kinsor	Ghusō, (kuṣsō)	146. A dog.
Taki solok-de-ki . Inselo kinsor-ji . Löngā bulī ghusō, (āvun kussō-digan). Muindar bodā Kimme; me	Muindar taki solok .	Yāń kinsor; inselo kinsor .	Bulī ghusō, (āvun kussō) .	147. A bitch.
Muindar bodā	Solok-de-ki	Kinsor-ji	Lõngā ghusō, (kussō-ḍigan)	148. Dogs.
Muindar merâm . Yān-me	Taki solok-de-ki	Inselo kinsor-ji		149. Bitches.
Bodār-ki Kimme-ji Longā gimē, (kinmē-digan) 152. Goats. Muindar singāl harina . Pargdāp Harnā, (tēram ālu) 153. A male deer. Muindar māi harina	Muindar bodā	Kimme; me	Gimē, (gaņḍrā kinmē)	150. A he goat.
Muindar singāl harina . Pargḍāp Harnā, (tēram ālu) 153. A male deer. Muindar māi harina	Muindar merâm .	Yāń-mе	Iyōṅgmē, (āvun kinmē) .	151. A female goat.
Muindar mài harina . Yan pargdāp Harnī, (āvun, ālu) 154. A female deer. Harina Pargdāp-ji Longā harnā, (ālu) 155. Deer. Äiñje āsike, or idame Nēn daku; dako-taī Ning dutu, (mingu-nē-ku) 156. I am. Ämde m-āsike, or ināin . Aman daku; dako-te . Nom dutu, (bābin-bō-ku) . 157. Thou art. Ār āsike, or idame Anin daku; dako-te Māy dutu, (no duku) . 158. He is.	Bodār-ki	Kimme-ji	Löngā gimē, (kinmē-digan)	152. Goats.
Harina Pargḍāp-ji Longā harnā, (ālu) 155. Deer. Äiñje āsike, or iḍame	Muindar siṅgāl harina	Pargdāp	Harnā, (tēram ālu)	153. A male deer.
Aiñje āsike, or iḍame	Muindar māi harina .	Yān pargdāp	Harnī, (āvun, ālu)	154. A female deer.
Āmde m-āsike, or ināin . Aman ḍaku; ḍako-te . Nom ḍutu, (bābin-bō-ku) . 157. Thou art. Ār āsike, or iḍame . Anin ḍaku; ḍako-te . Māy ḍutu, (no ḍuku) . 158. He is.	Harina	Pargḍāp-ji	Lõngā harnā, (ālu)	155. Deer.
Ār āsike, or idame Anin daku; dako-te Māy dutu, (no duku) . 158. He is.	Āiñje āsike, or idame .	Ñēn ḍaku; ḍako-taï	Ning dutu, (mingu-në-ku)	156. I am.
Ar asike, or iname Anni quant, quite ser.	Āmḍe m-āsike, or ināin	Aman daku ; dako-te .	Nom dutu, (bābin-bō-ku) .	157. Thou art.
Neiñje n-āsike, or ne-ide . Ellen daku ; dako-taī . Nēing dutu 159. We are.	Ār āsike, or idame .	Anin daku; dako-te	Māy dutu, (no duku) .	158. He is.
	Neiñje n-āsike, or ne-iḍe	Ellen daku; dako-taï .	Nēing dutu	159. We are.
Hare h-āsike, or ināiu . Ambe ḍaku; ḍako-te . Pēnchā dutu 160. You are.	Hare h-äsike, or ināin	Ambe daku; dako-te .	Pēnchā dutu	160. You are.

English.	Santālī (Sontbal Parganas).	Māhlē (Sonthal Parganas).	Muņģārī (Ranchi).
161. They are	Menak'-kō-ā	Mēnak'-kō-ā; -kan-ā-kō; -ken-kō, etc.	Mēnak'-kō-ā
162. I was	Tahä-kan-ā-ñ	Mēnânēñ, mēnenēñ; henânēñ; hänenēñ.	Tāi-ken-ā-iṅg, (tāhān-ken- ā-ñ, etc.).
163. Thou wast	Tahā-kan-ā-m	Mēnânâm etc	Tāi-ken-ā-m
164. He was	Tahā-kan-ā-e	Mēnän-ē, etc	Tāi-ken-ā-e
165. We were	Tahā-kan-ā-bō, etc	Mēnän-ā-bōn, etc	Tāi-ken-ā-bū
166. You were	Tahā-kan-ā-pā	Mēnän-ā-pä, etc	Tāi-ken-ā-pē
167. They were	Tahā-kan-ā-kō	Mēnān-ā-kō, etc.	Tāi-ken-ā-kō
168. Be	Hoyok'-mä	Tāhān-mē ; hāk'-mē	Hőbā-ok'; (hoyok'-mē) .
169. To be	Menak'	Tāhān ; hāk'	Hōbā-ok'; (hoyok').
170. Being	Menak'	Tahän-tē	Hōbā-yan-tē, (tāhān-tē) .
171. Having been	Tahā-ka-tā	Tāhš-ketē	(Tāhān-ke-tē)
172. I may be	Hoyok'-gē-chā-ñ	Tāhā-gēñ; hāk'-gēñ	(Tāhān-g-iñ)
173. I shall be	Hoyok'-ā-ñ	Hâk'-iñ	Ing hobaok'-a ; (tāhān-ā-ñ)
174. I should be	Hōe-kok'-ā-ñ	Hấkấk'-iñ	(Tāhān-kok'-ā-ñ)
175. Beat	Dāl-mä	Dāl-mē	Dāl-mē
176. To beat	Dāl	Dāl	Dāl, dadāl
177. Beating	Dāl; dadāl	Dāl-tē	Dål-tan
178. Having beaten	Dāl-ka-tā	Dāl-ketē	Dāl-ket'-te
179. I beat	Dāl-et'-ā-ñ	Dāl-dek'-īñ ; dāl-et'-īñ, etc.	Īng dāl-i-ā
180. Thou beatest	Däl-et'-ä-m	Dāl-dâk'-âm	Ām dāl-i-ā
181. He beats	Dāl-et'-ā-e	Dāl-dek'-ē	Īnī dāl-i-ā
182. We beat	Dāl-et'-ā-bō	Dāl-dak'-ā-bōn	Ā-bū dāl-i-ā
183, You beat	Dāl-et'-ā-pä	Dāl-dak'-ā-pä	Ā-pē dāl-i-ā
184. They beat	Dāl-et'-ā-kō	Dāl-dak'-ā-kō	Ā-kō dāl-i-ā
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Dāl-ket'-ā-ñ ,	Dāl-kek'-īñ	Dāl-ked-ā-ing (dāl-ket'-āñ,
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	Dāl-ket'-ā-m	Dāl-kâk'-ām	etc.). Dāl-ked-ā-m
187. He beat (Past Tense).	Dāl-ket'-ā-e	Dål-kek'-ë	Dāl-ked-ā-e
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Bīrhār (Sonthal Parganas).		Dhangar (Sonthal Parganas).	Korwā (Mirzapur).
Mēnak'-kō-ā; -kān-ā-kō		Mēnak'-kō-ā ; -tān-ā-kō	Hon-kū (īdān-ā)
Tāhễ-kin-ā-ñ		Dāhāk'-ken-iñ ; tāhā-ken-iñ	Ing doho-tan-ā
Tāhễ-kin-ā-m		Dâhâk'-ken-ā-m, etc.	Am doho-tan-ä
Tāhē-kin-ā-e		Dâhâk'-ken-ē, etc	Honī doho-tan-ā
Tähë̃-kin-ā-bōn .		Dâhâk'-ken-ā-bū, etc	Alē doho-tan-ā
Tāhē̃-kin-ā-pē		Dāhāk'-ken-ā-pē, etc.	Ape doho-tan-ā
Tāhễ-kin-ā-kō		Dāhāk'-ken-ā-kō, etc	Hon-kū doho-tan-ā
Tāhēk'-mē ; hōyōk'-mē		Hoyok'-mē; tāhān-mē; dāhâk'-mē.	
Tahēk'; hōyōk'		Hoyok'; tāhān	
Tāhēk'-tē; hōyōk'-tē		Tāhān-tē	
Tāhē-ke-tē		Tāhān-kē-tē	
Tāhễk'-ge-chā-ñ .		Tāhēn-gīñ	
Tāhēk'-ā-ñ ·		Tāhān-iñ ; dāhâk'-iñ ; dāhān- iñ.	
Tāhē̃-kōk'-ā-ñ		Dāhā-kok'-in	
Rū-i-mē		Dāl-mē	Edei-mī
Rā		Dāl	
Rū-i-tē		Dāl-tē	
Rū-ke-tē		Dāl-ke-tē	
Rū-yat-ā-ñ		Dāl-ek'-etīñ	Ing ed-e-a
Rū-yat-ā-m		Dāl-ek'-etām	Am ed-e-ā
Rū-yat-ā-e		Dāl-ek'-etē	Honi ed-e-ā
Rū-yat-ā-bōu		Dāl-ek'-etā-bū	Alē ed-e-ā
Rū-yat-ā-pē		Dāl-ek'-etā-pē	Ape ed-e-ā
Rū-yat-ā-kō		Dāl-ek'-etā-kō	Hon-kü ed-e-ā
Rū-yet'-ā-ñ		Dāl-ket'-īñ ; dāl-let'-īñ ; dāl- lāk'-īñ.	Ing ed-ked-e-ā
Rū-yet'-ā-m		Dāl-ket'-ā-m, etc	Am ed-ked-e-ā
Rū-yet'-ā-e		Dāl-ket'-ē, etc.	Honī ed-ked-e-ā

Kürkü (Amraoti).	Nahālī (Nimar)		Khariā (Ranchi).
Dī-kō tijā-kō .		Hoi itan-kë		O-ki Kharia-ge ki-mai .
Ing tätäk-dän		Jo o		Ing au-king
Ām tātāk-dān .		Nē o		Am au-kim
Dī tātāk-dān .		Ho ēthē		O-kar au-ki
Ābung tātāk-dān		Joo		Ele au-ki-le
Āpē tātāk-dān .		Nē o		Ampe au-ki-pe
Dī-kō tātāk-dān		Ho ēthē		Ho-ki au-ki-mai
Tākē				Al-e
Tākābā				Au-na
				
				 .
Ing tāku .				
(Iṅg ḍao-bā) .				Ing hoi-ning
Ing täkejadären		·····		Ing hoi-ting
Mūndā		Koţţo	٠,	Gil-e
Mūndābā .		Koţţo		Gil, gil-na
Mundãe		Kotto-kādinī .		<i>.</i>
Mundãe		Koţţojērē .		
lng mundābā .		Jo koţţegā .		Ing gil-ting
Ām mundābā		Në kottogë .		Am gil-tem
Dī mundābā		Hoîtarê kottogā		O-kar gil-tei
Ābung mundābā		Jo kottegā		Ele gil-ta-le
Āpē mundābā .		Nē koṭṭogā .		Ampe gil-ta-pe (or gil-te-pe)
Dī-kō mundābā		Hoitarē koţţogā		O-ki gil-tei-ki
(Ing kumā-kane)		Jo kōhaṭī .		Ing gilo' ing
(Åm kumā-kane)		Në këhatë .		Am gilo-m
(Dī kumā-kane)		Ētarē kōhaṭī .		O-kar gii o

Juãng (Dheukanal).		Savara (Ganjam).	Gađabā (Bastar).	English.
Ār-ki āsike, or isidi-ke		Aniñji ḍaku ; ḍako-te	Māynēng dutu	161. They are.
Āiñje asiānā		Ñēn ḍako-laï ; ḍaku-lenaï .	Ning dugu, (mingu-nē- kuru.)	162. I was.
Āman-ḍe m-asiānā		Aman dako-le	Nom dugu, (māṅgu-mo- kuru.)	163. Thou wast.
Ār asiānā		Anin dako-le ; dako-nëte .	Māy dugu	164. He was.
Neiñje n-asiānā .		Ellen ḍako-laï	Nēing dugu	165. We were.
Hare h-asiānā	·	Ambe dako-le	Pēnchā dugu	166. You were.
Ār-ki asiān		Aniñji ḍako-le-ji	Māynēng dugu	167. They were.
I-nā		Paku ; ḍakunā		168. Be.
Ide · ·		Dako-bān		169. To be.
Idame		Dakon ; danaku		170. Being.
Isidame		Pakūle; dakon-dakūle .		171. Having been.
Āiñje iḍame				172. I may be.
Aiñje ide		Nēn dako-taï		173. I shall be.
Āiñje nichen inā .				174. I should be.
Abhaj-e		Tida	Buktū	175. Beat.
Abhajam		Tiḍ-bān; tiḍ-bēn	Buktū ,	176. To beat.
Abhaja		Tidān ; tanidan .	Buk-buk	177. Beating.
Abhaja		Tiḍān tiḍ-le	Виб	178. Having beaten.
Āiñje abha-kye		Ñēn tittaï	Ning buk-tū	179. I beat.
Āman-ḍe m-abha-kye		Aman titte	Nom buk-tū	180. Thou beatest.
Ár abha-kye		Anin titte	Māy buk-tū	181. He beats.
Nciñje n-abha-kye .		Ellen tittaï	Nēing buk-tū	182. We beat.
Hare h-abha-kye		Ambe titte	Pēnchā buk-tū	183. You beat.
Ār-ki abha-kye-ki		Aniñji titteji	Māynēng buk-tū	184. They beat.
$ ilde{\mathbf{A}}$ i $ ilde{\mathbf{n}}$ je abhoisor .		Ñen tillaï ; tiḍ-laï, etc.	Ning böö	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Āmande m-abhoisor .		Aman tille	Nom böö	186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).
Ār abhoisor		Amin tidēte ; tid-le	Māy böö	187. He beat (Past Tense).
	_		<u> </u>	T & M.—267

English.	Santālī (Sonthal Parganas).	Māhlē (Sontbal Parganas).	Muņģārī (Ranchi).
188. We beat (Past Tense)	Dāl-ket²-ā-bō	Dāl-kak'-ā-bōn	Dāl-ked-ā-bū
189. You beat (Past Tense	Dāl-ket'-ā-pä	Dāl-kak'-ā-pä	Dāl-ked-ā-pē
190. They beat (Past Tense	Dāl-ket'-ā-kō	Dāl-kak'-ā-kō	Dāl-ked-ā-kō
191. I am beating .	Dāl-et'-kạn-ặ-ñ	Dāl-et'-ken-īn	Ing dal-tan-a-ing
192. I was beating .	Dāl-et'-(kan-) tahä-kan-ā-ñ	Dāl hēnīñ	Ing dal-tan tai-ken-a-ing .
193. I had beaten .	Dāl-let'-ā-ñ ; dāl-akāt'-tahā- kạn-ā-ĥ.	Dāl-lek'-īñ; dāl-kek' hēnīñ.	Iṅg dāl-akad-ā-iṅg, (dāl-tāt' tāhān-ken-āñ).
194. I may beat	Dāl-ke-ā-ñ ; dāl-ge-chā-ñ .	Dāl-kēñ	Ing dāl-dari-ā
195. I shall beat .	Dāl-ā-ñ	Dāl-īñ	Dāl-e-ā-ing, (dāl-āñ)
196. Thou wilt beat .	Dāl-ā-m	Dāl-ām	Dāl-e-ā-m
197. He will beat .	Dāl-ā-e	Dāl-ē	Dāl-e-ā-e
198. We shall beat .	Dāl-ā-bō	Dāl-ā-bōn	Dāl-e-ā-bū
199. You will beat .	Dāl-ā-pä	Dāl-ā-pä	Dāl-e-ā-pē
200. They will beat .	Dāl-ā-kō	Dāl-ā-kō	Dål-e-å-kō
201. I should beat .	Dāl-ke-ā-ñ	Dāl-kēñ	(Dāl-kīñ)
202. I am beaten .	Dāl-ok'-kan-ā-ñ	Dāl-ok'-ken-īñ; dāl-sāk'- ken-īñ.	Ing dal-ok'-a-ing
203. I was beaten .	Dāl-ok'-kan-tahā-kạn-ạ-ñ .	Dāl-en-īñ	Ing dal-jan-ā-ing, (dāl-en- āñ).
204. I shall be beaten	Dāl-ok'-ā-ñ	Dāl-ok'-īñ	Ing dål-ok'-ä
205. I go	Sän-âk'-kạn-ā-ñ	Chālāk'-ken-īñ	Ing sān-ok'-ā
206. Thou goest .	Sän-åk'-kan-ā-m	Chālāk'-kân-ām	Ām sān-ok'-ā
207. He goes	Sän-åk'-kan-å-e	Chālâk'-ken-ē	Īnī sān-ok'-ā
208. We go	Sän-åk'-kan-å-bō	Chālāk'-kan-ā-bōn .	Sän-tan-ā-bū, (sänok'-tan- ā-bū).
209. You go	Sän-åk'-kan-ä-pä	Chālāk'-kan-ā-pä	Sän-tan-ā-pē
210. They go	Sän-åk-kan-ä-kō	Chālāk'-kan-ā-kō	Sän-tan-ā-kō ,
211. I went	Chalāo-en-ā-ñ	Chālā-en-iñ; -nen-iñ; -len- īñ.	Sän-ken-å-ing, (sän-en-åñ) .
212. Thou wentest .	Chalão-en-ã-m	Chālŝ-en-âm, etc	Sän-ken-ā-m
213. He went	Chalão-en-ã-e	Chālâ-en-ē, etc.	Sän-ken-ä-e
214. We went	Chalão-en-a-bō	Chālā-en-ā-bōn, etc	Sän-ken-ä-bū
т. & м.—268	<u> </u>	1	

Bīrhŝṛ (Southal Parganas).	Dhangar (Sonthal Parganas).	Korwā (Mirz a pur).	
Rū-yet'-ā-bōn	Dāl-ket'-ā-bū, etc	Alē ed-ked-e-ā	
Rū-yet'-ā-pē	Dāl-ket'-ā-pē	Ape ed-ked-e-ā	
Rū-yet'-ā-kō	Dāl-ket'-ā-kō	Hon-kū ed-ked-e-ā	
Rū-i-kān-ā-ñ	Dāl-et'-tān-īñ ; dadāl-tān-īñ	Ing et-mi-y-a	
Rū-yat' tāhē-kin-ā-ñ	Dāl-et' tāhā-ken-īñ; dāl-et' dāhāk'-ken-īñ.	Ing et-su-tad-i-y-a	
Rū-skāt' tāhē-kin-ā-ñ	Dāl-tār-ak' dāhâk-ken-īñ .	Ing goch'-su-tad-ā	
Rū-kē-ā-ñ	Dāl-gīñ		
Rū-y-ā-ñ	Dāl-īñ ,	Ing ed-e-a	
Rū-y-ā-m	Dāl-ā-m	Am ed-e-ā	
Rū-y-ā-e	Dāl-ē	Honī ed-e-ā	
Rū-y-ā-bōn	Dāl-ā-bū	Alē ed-e-ā	
Rū-y-ā-pē	Dāl-ā-pē	Ape ed-e-ā	
Rū-y-ā-kō	Dāl-ā-kō	Hon-kű ed-e-ä	
Rű-kē-ā-ñ	Dāl-kē-ñ		
Rū-k'-kān-ā-ñ; rū-ōchē-k'- kān-ā-ñ.	Dāl-oļk'-ten-īñ	Ing goch'-yan-ā	
Rū-k'-kān tāhē-kin-ā-ñ	Dāl-en-iñ		
Rū-k'-ā-ñ	Dāl-ok'-īñ		
Sēn-ōk'-kān-ā-ñ	Sēnok'-tīñ	Ing chalao-en-a	
Sēn-ōk'-kān-ā-m	Sēnok'-tām	Am chalao-en-ā	
Sēn-ōk'-kān-ā-e	Sēnok'-tē	Honī chalao-en-ā	
Sēn-ōk'-kān-ā-bōn	Sēnok'-tā-bū	Alē chalao-en-ā	
Sēn-ōk'-kān-ā-pē	Sēnok'-tā-pē	Ape chalao-en-ā	
Sēn-ōk'-kān-ā-kō	Sēnok'-tā-kō	Hon-kū chalao-en-ā	
Sēn-en-ā-ñ; sēn-len-ā-ñ	Sēn-en-iñ; sēn-len-iñ; sēt'- en-iñ.	Ing chalao-ken-ā	
Sēn-en-ā-m	Sēn-en-ām	Am chalao-ken-ā	
Sēn-en-ā-e	Sēn-en-ē	Honī chalao-ken-ā	
Sēn-en-ā-bön	Sēn-en-ā-bū	Alē chalao-ken-ā	

Kürkü (Amraoti).		Nahālī (Nima	r).	Khariā (Ranchi).
(Ālē kumā-kane)		Jo köhaţī .		. Ele gil-o-le
(Āpē kumā-kane)		Në këhati .		Ampe gil-o-pe
(Dī-kō kumā-kane)		Ētarē kōhaṭī .		O-ki gil-o-ki, or gil-o-ki-ma
Ing munda lap-ken		Jo kotto-kādinī		Ing gil-ting
Ing mű-mundá-dán				Ing gil-o-ing
Ing munda-daren		Jo koţţojērē .		. Ing gil-sikho
Ing mundada .				(Ing gil-na pal-ing)
Ing mundej-bā		Jo koţţoken-kā		Ing gil-ing
(Am mundej-bā)		Nē kōhaṭuken		Am gil-em
(Dī mundej-bā)		Étaré kōhaṭuken		. O-kar gil-e
(Ālē mundej-bā)		Jo köhatuken .		. Ele gil-e-le
(Āpē mundej-bā)		Në këhatuken .	. '	. Ampe gil-e-pe
(Dī-kō mundej-bā)		Étarë köhatuken		O-ki gil-e-ki
Iṅg mundyūbā		Ēngēn koṭṭīn .		Ing gil-dom-ting .
(Ing-ken munda-kan	ē) .			Ing gil-dom-king .
				(Ing gil-dom-na-ing)
Ing senībā .		Jo ēr-gā .		Ing chol-ting
Ām šenībā .		Nē ēr-gā .		Am chol-tam
Dī śenībā .		Hoytarë ër-gā .		O-kar chol-tai
(Ālē śenībā) .		Jo ēr-gā .		Ele chol-ta-le
(Āpē šenībā) .		Nē ēr-gā		. Ampe chol-ta-pe .
(Ā-kō śenībā) .		Hoytarë ër-gä .		O-ki chol-tai-ki (-mai)
Ing sen-en dan		Jo ēdē		. Ing chol-si'-king
Âm śen-en dān		Nē ēdē		. Am chol-si'-kim
Di sen-en dan .		Hoytarē ēdē .		. O-kar chol-si'-ki

Juäng (Dhenkanal).		Savara (Ganjam).		Gadabā (Bastar).	English.
Neiñje n-abhoisor		1	Ellen tiḍ-laï		Nēing bōō	188. We beat (Past Tense).
Hare h-abhoisor			Ambe tiḍ-le		Pēnehā bēō	189. You beat (Past Tense)
Ār-ki abhoisor.			Aniñji tiḍ-le-ji		Māynēṅg bōō	190. They beat (Past Tense)
Āiñje abha-kye			Ñēn tittaï		Ning buk-dutu	191. I am beating.
Āiñje abhainānā			Ñên tillaï		Ning buk-buk-dugu	192. I was beating.
Āiñje abhoisor .			Ñēn tillaï		Ning böö	193. I had beaten.
Āiñje abhajem					Nīng buk-tū-bē	194. I may beat.
Āiñje abhaj-e			Ñēn tittaï		Ning buk-tū-bē	195. I shall beat.
Āman-ḍe m-abhâj-i		-	Aman titte		Nom buk-tū-bē	196. Thou wilt beat.
Ār abhāj-i		-	Anin titte		Māy buk-tū-bē	197. He will beat.
Neiñje n-abhâj-i			Ellen tittaï		Nēing buk-tū-bē	198. We shall beat.
Hare h-abhâj-i			Ambe titte		Pēnchā buk-tū-bē	199. You will beat.
Ār-ki abhāj-i .			Aniñji titteji		Māynēng buk-tū-bē.	200. They will beat.
Āiñje nichen abhaj-e	•					201. I should beat.
Āiñje māḍ jim-se-ke					Ning-nű bőö	202. I am beaten.
Āiñje māḍ jim-ser					Nîng-nu bôo	203. I was beaten.
Āiñje māḍ jim					Ning-nū bōō-bē	204. I shall be beaten.
Ăiñje hâṇḍe .			Ñēn erte; itte		Nīṅg ōinīṅg, (mīṅgu yinunēru).	205. I go.
Āmanḍe ma-hâṇḍe			Aman erte; itte .		Nom oining	206. Thou goest.
Ār hāṇḍe .			Anin erte ; itte .	•	Māy ōi	207. He goes.
Neiñje n-âṇḍe .			Ellen erte ; itte .		Nēing ōinīng, (bilāngu yinunēru).	208. We go.
Hare hânde			Ambe erte; itte .		Pēnchā ōinīng, (māngu yō)	209, You go.
Ār-ki hâṇḍe-ki			Aniñji erte-ji ; itte-ji		Māynēng öinīng, (nōyāngi öyitēyō).	210. They go.
Āiñje hân-cher			Ñen erre; ille, etc		Nîng ōigī	211. I went.
Āmaṇḍe m-ân-cher			Aman erre		Nom oigi	212. Thou wentest.
Ār hân-cher .			Anin erēte ; iyēte .		Māy ōigī, (nōn vuyi) .	213. He went.
Neiñje n-ân-cher			Ellen erre		Nëing oigi, (bilangu-lë-yi) .	214. We went.

English.	Santāli (Sonthal Parganas).	Māhlē (Sonthal Parganas).	Muņļārī (Ranchi).
215. You went	Chalāo-en-ā-pä	Chālā-en-ā-pä	Sän-ken-ā-pē
216. They went	Chalão-en-ã-kō	Chālā-en-ā-kō	Sän-ken-ā-kō
217. Go	Chalak'-mä; sän-âk'-mä .	Chālāk'-mē	Sänok'-mē
218. Going	Chalak'-kan	Chālāk'-tē	Sänok'-të
219. Gone	Chalão-akan	Chālā-ekēn	Sän-ken, sän-akan
220. What is your name? .	Nutum-dâ chelē-ām-ā? .	Ām-ak' lūtūm chēt'-ken- tām-ā ?	Āmak' chikān nūtūm ? .
221. How old is this horse?	Nũi sadām-dā tinạk' sermā- rän?	Nūi sādām-dā tīnak' sērmā- rēn-ken-ē ?	Chimīn sīrmā-rēn sādām nīk'ī?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Nâṇḍā-khān Kāsmīr-dā tīn sặṅgiñ?	Nāṇḍā-ketē Kasmir-dātīnak' sāṅgiñ-ā ?	Niā-tē Kāshmīr chimīn sāṇgīn-ā?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	Apū-m ōṛak'-rä-da tinạk' hâpân menak'-pä-ā ?	Ām-īch' āpūm örak'-rē tīnīch' kēnpē hāpān ?	Āpū-m-ak' ōrak'-rē chīmin- āng kōrā hān-kō mēnak'- kō-ā ?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Tehēñ-dâ āḍī sāṇgiñ-iñ dăṛā-akāt'-ā.	Tēbēñ-dâ sāṅgīñ ḍāhār dārāken-īñ.	Ko-a r Tisin isu sängin-tē-ng sän- ken-ā.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	mīsērā-t tulūch'-ä baplā-	Īñīch' gōṅgō-ñ hâpān ūni mēsēt tūlūch' bāplā-ken-ē.	Kākā-iñ-ak' hān-tēt' nī mīsī-tēt'-ē dō-akad-i-a
226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.	akan-ā. Ōŗak'-rā pōṇḍ sadām-reak' palān menak'-ā.	Ārak'-rē pā̈́ņḍ sādām-rak' pālān mēnak'-ā.	Örak'-rē pūņdī sādām-rak' guņdi mēnak'-ā.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Palān lagāo-āe-mā	Űnī dēât-rē pālān lādē-y-ēm	Gundi lāgau-āi-mē
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Ūnī-rān hâpân-tāt' ạḍī dāl- iñ dāl-akad-ē-ā.	Ŭnī-īch' hâpān ḍhēr dāl dāl- kek'-ē-īñ.	Înî-rên hân körā isū salkuņḍ-iṅg dāl-akad-i-ā.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Burú chất-rã gặi-dangrā- kō-ä ạtīñ-et'-kō-ā.	Būrū chētēn-rē mēhū märâm ātīñ-et'-kō-ē.	Īnī būrū-rē ūrīch'-kō-ē gūpī- jat'-kō-ā.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Mit'täch' sadām-rä-y-ä däch'-akān-ā ōnā darē butā-rä.	Õnā dārē lātār-rē mīt'tēn sādām-rē däch'-ekēn-ē.	Ēn dārū sukā re sādām-rē- ē dūb-akān-ā.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	Uni-rän dadā-t-tat'-dâ ūni- rän aji-t-tat'-khân bārti-y-ä usūl-ā.	Ūnī-īch' bāhiā-dā āch' mēsēt-ketē ūsūl-gē-y-ē.	Bāū-tēt' kōrā mīsī-etē-ē salangi-ā.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Ōnā-reak' dām-dâ bār ṭākā tālā.	Ōnā-rak' dām-dā bār ṭhāk' tala.	Înā-rak' gânâng bār ṭākā adli-ā.
233. My father lives in that small house.	Apīn-dā onā hudin orak'- rā-y-ā tahā-kan-ā.	Īñ āpū-ñ ōnā kāṭīch' ōrak'-rē mēnē-y-ē.	Āpū-ing en huring orak'-rē tāin-tan-a.
234. Give this rupee to him .	Noā ṭākā ūni em-āe-mā .	Nīā ṭhấk' ũnĩ lĩch' ắm-ắm .	Nē ṭākā ām-ā-i-mē
235. Take those rupees from him.	Ōnā-kō ṭākā ūnī-ṭhān-khân hatāo-mä.	Ūnī thīch'-ketē nōā-kō thāk' hāthōe-mē.	An ţākā înî-etē āu-mē
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Bäs-lekā piṭāu-ē-m ār babēr- kō-tā tāl-ā-mā.	Bēs lākā-tē dāl-ē-m ār dōirō-kō-tē tāl-ē-mē.	Bēs-lekā dāl-kīch'-tē pāgā- tē tâlī-mē.
237. Draw water from the well.	Kűi-khấn dak' lō-rakāb-mä	Kũiā-ketē dāk' lāe-mē	Kãã-etē dāk' tauk'-mē .
238. Walk before me .	Ĩñ lahā-lahā-tä chalak'-mä .	Īñ-ak' mātrān-rē dārōn-mē .	Aiñ-ag-ak' ayar-te sän-mē.
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	Âkāe hāpān ām tayām-tā hijuk'-kan-ā?	Âkāe-ich' kōrā ām-ak' tāyām hējok'-ken-ō ?	Âkāe-ak' hān-e âtāng-jat'- mē-ā?
240. From whom did you buy that?	Âkāe-ṭhān ōnā-dā-m kiriñ- ket'-ā?	Ōnā âkāe thän kīrīñ-kâd- âk'-ām ?	Ēnā âkāe-tē-m kīrīñ-lak'-ā ?
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Atō-rān mit'-tān dokāndār- thān-ge.	Ātō·rēn mīt'-ţēn dōkāndār ţhān.	Hātū-rēn mīat' bēpārī- tak'-tē.
	thän-ge.	Atō-rēn mīt'-ţēn dōkāndār ţhān.	

Bīrbār (Sonthal Parganas).	Dhangar (Sonthal Parganas).	Korwā (Mirzapur).
Sēn-en-ā-pē	Sēn-en-ā-pē	Apē chalao-ken-ā
Sēn-en-ā-kō	Sēn-en-ā-kō	Hon-kū chalao-ken-ā
Sēn-ōk'-mē	Sēnok'-mē	Chalao-mi
Sēn-ōk'-tē	Sēnok'-tē	Chalao-en
Sēn-ekān; sēn-en	Sēn-akān	Sen-ken
Āmak' nūtūm-dā chelew-ām- ā ?	Āmak' nūtum chikin-tān- ak'?	Ama(k') yum chili-men? .
Nūi sādām-dā tīmīn dīn- rinich'-kān-īch' ?	Nī sādām-ṭāk' chīmīn bâchhār-rēn hōy-en-ē?	Temin din äe ghörä?
Noṇḍō-etē Kāsmīr-dā tīmīn sāṅgīñ-ā ?	Näṇḍā hātē Kāsmīr chīmīn sāṅgīn-tān-ak'?	Nauri-te Kaśmīr temin saṅgiyāṅ ?
Ām āpō-m ōrak'-rē-dā tīmīnā hāpān mēnak'-pē- ā?	Āmak' āpūm-rēn ōṛak'-rē chīmināk' mēnak'-kō-ā kōrā hān-kō ?	Am-tha-re temin hopon-kū īdān-à?
Tehēñ sāṅgiñ hōra-ñ sēn- akān-ā-ñ,	Tehên sangin hora sen-akan iñ.	Tesing sangiyan ing sen-ter- ä.
Îñ göngö-ñ-ren hapan hani- inich' misi era sangä bapla-akan-a-e.	Îñ-ak' göngöñ-ren hân ini- reak' bâk-tet' kūrī tulich' dūtām-akān-ē.	Kakā hopon henī sudhā biāh-ked-e-ā.
Pondē sādām-rēak' gon orak'-rē mēnak'-ā.	Örak'-rē pöņdē sādām-rēn pālān mēnak'-ā.	Ora(k')-re puņdie ghōrā-rā khōgir dohokerā.
Ūnī dēā chētān-rē gōn lādē- kā-m.	Īnī dâyā-rē pālān lādēm .	Khogir dea-t-re dohoen .
Ūnī-īch' hâpāu khūb rū rū- ^a kāk'-dē-ā-ñ.	Īni-ak' hân ḍhēr dāl-īñ dāl-teyich'.	Henî chỗṛī khūb ed-ked-e-ā.
Būrū chētāu-rē gāe mārām ātiñ-kō-kān-ā-e.	Būrū chētān-rē ūrīch' mārām ātiñ-kō-teyē.	Burū teṅg-re ḍaṅgrā-kū charāo-en-ā.
Hānā dārō phāḍ-rē mīat' sādām-rē-y-ē dēch'-ckān-ā.	Enā dárē būṭā-rē miat' sādām-rē dēch'-akān-ē.	Ghōṛā deā-re rukh dubī-re durup'-ken-ā.
Ūnī-rinīch' bōehā-dā ūnī- inīch' mīsī ērā-etē-y-ē ūsūl-ā.	Īnī-ak' hāgeā inī-ak' bāk-tēt' kūŗī hatē ūsūl- ge-y-īch'.	Henī-renai(ch') boho-tu bare-ā (sic.).
Ōnā-rēak' dām-dā bāreā ṭākā tālā.	Enā-rēn dām bār ṭākā tālā- tān-ak'.	Henī-rā dām arhāī rūpayā .
Īñ-inīch' āpō-ñ hānā hūḍīñ ōrak'-rō-y-ō tāhēk'-kān-ā.	Īñ-ak' āpū-ñ enā huḍiñ ōṛak'-rē dāhâk'-etē.	Itti chokojā ora(k')-re appu-i(n) doho-tan-ā.
Hāni ām-āe-mē nōā ṭākā-dā	Nā ṭākā nī ēm-īm	Nā rūpayā menī oai-mī
Hānī ṭhīn-etē nōā-kōn ṭākā hātāo-mē.	Nā tākā-kō ānī thich' hatē āgū-m.	Bonom rūpayā henī sudhā tilāi-mī.
Bēs-lēkā-tē rū-ēy-mē ār dōrā-kō-tē tāl-ēy-mē.	Bēs-kek' dāl-ī-m ār bā-hēr- kō-tē tōl-ī-m.	Khūb-te edei-mī paghā-te tol-e-mī.
Kŭiā atē dāk' lõe-mē	Kũã-hātē dāk' būrak'c-mē .	Chũã-ra(k') da(k') lũi-mĩ .
lñ saman-rē dārān-mē	Īũ-ak' sāmāṅ-rē tāṛām-mē .	Ining maran-re jū ghumāu- mī.
Åkāe-ich' hāpān ām tāyām- tē hījūk'-kān-ā-e ?	Âkāe-ak' hān hījuk'-tān-ē ām-ak' dâyā-tē?	Am tayam-te yarnē chörī viju(k')-tan-ā?
Âkāe-thin ōnā-dā-m kiriñ- et'-ā-m?	Âkāe thin nā kiriñ-ket'-ā- m?	Yā-tha-re-m tilā-teṛ-ā ?
Hātō-rinīch' mīat' dōkāndār thīn.	Hātō-rēn miat' dōkāndār ṭhīn.	Gw-ren sahu-tha-re tila- ter-a.
		Т. & М.—273

Kürkü (Amraoti).	Nahālī (Nīmar).	Khariä (Ranchi).
(Å-pē o-len)	Nē ērī	Ampe chol-ki-pe
(Dī-kō o-len)	Ētarē ērī	O-ki chol-ki-mai
Bâ; śenie	Ērē	Cho-na
Śenie	Ēdē	Chona-chona
Śenie	Edē	Chol-ki
Ām-ā jūmū chōch' :	Nē nān ?	Ama i ñiemi ?
Ini gürgi-ken choto örsö-kö?	Yē jākoto māu umar ? .	U ghora ki'te toga heke? .
In-en-të Kāśmīrān lāṅkan chōch' ?	Hīṭīkun Kāśmīr bhāgā- ḍhāwā ?	U-atei ki'te disai Kasmir ? .
Ām-ā ābā urā-n choṭā kōn- kū ?	Nēngā ābā āwār-kē lānā āṭāibinī ?	Apnom ok'-te ki'te koṇḍu ai'-mai ?
Ing khā-lankā ej-e	Bāāya jo bhāgā-dhāwā-kun pāṭā.	Musa ing dher gudjung sangot-king.
Iyā kākā kon ten kon-jā sālane bi-yāo-kanē.	In kākā pālichho biyāw ten bāi-rēn chhango jērē.	Kaka-ing-a bet-dom han- kar-a kulamdain-dom- bong bihai-o
Pulum ghuḍgī jīn urān .	Pāṇḍhar māunā khogīr itē awār-kē ibirē.	Osel ghora-a jin ok'-te ai' .
Ghuḍgī pāṭāliyen jīn āndāya	Ētarnēnkā jār-kē khogir okī-bē.	Jin-te ghora-a kuṇḍap'-te lad'e-gor-e.
Ing dījā kon-te-ken khūb kwollā-te kwā-khanē.	Ētarnēn palichhorēn khūb lakadīnī koṭṭī.	U-kar-a bet-dom ing khub gil-o-ing.
Ahu koho tikadī gāyku chārā-āṇḍā-ken.	Ho ittī ballā kajār-kē dhottā charāw-kēdinī.	Ho-kar biru toblung orei-ki- te gupa-te.
Dī chhiyā itan ghudgi līyen subanke.	Ho ittī ādd bhītar-kē māukā jār-kī pețejīrē.	U lebu daru hepat'-te ghora- te doko-si.
Dījā dādā dījā bāi-ṭē uchā.	Ētarēn dādā ētarēn bāirēn- kū ūnchā.	Ho-kar-a bhai-dom u-kar-a kulamdai-dom-tei maha ai'.
Dījā molā āḍāi rupiyā .	Ētarēn kimton adāi rupyā jēdēgā.	U-kar-a dam arhai rupaia.
Iyã ābā sānī urān thāṛ-bā .	Ēngē ābā ētarēn bāsī awār- kē ughāingā.	Apa-ing i konon ok'-te ai'.
Dī rupiyā dīje ikki .	Hi rupyā ētarēn dē-kē .	U rupaia-te ho-kar-te ter- gor-e.
Dījā mērā-ten dī rupiyā āsilī.	Hoitī rupyā ētarēn unnī-bē.	Han-kaṛ-tei i rupaia ol-e.
Dikken khūb kwākē dorāle tolķāi.	Ētarēn khūb koṭṭo-bē do ḍorā-kī bokkī-bē.	Uje bese gil-e ro keke-bong tol-e.
Dī kui-ţen ḍā kolāgē .	Kui-kon jappo leiñjo-bē .	Chumda-tei dak' ding-e.
Iyã samman bâ	Iṅgē chhāmā-kī bh ām-b ē	Ela'-tei seng chona.
Ām-ā ṭāu-ṭen yē poyrā hejebā?	Në pächhal-kë nëni pälichhe päṭ-kedini ?	Ber-a kondu am-a kundap'- kundap' del-tai?
Yē mērā-ţen mōlā-ţe śāvē ?	Nani-thākun ko cē ?	Ujē ber-a'-tei song-o-m?
Āhu gā-ṭen beniyā mērā- ṭen.	Biyākān dukāndār-ṭhāku .	Po'dag-a opsongo'-tei.

	1		English.
Juāng (Dhenkanal).	Savara (Ganjam).	Gadabā (Bastar).	Engueu.
Hare h-ân-cher	Ambe erre	Pēnchā ōigī, (māṅgu-mō-yi)	215. You went.
Ār-ki hân-cher-ki	Aniñji erreji	Māynēng öigī, (nöngu-vu- yiyē).	216. They went.
Hânade	Irā	Iyā, (yō)	217. Go.
Bānā	Eran; anēran	Ōinīṅg, (yinnu)	218. Going.
Hânate		Ōigi	219. Gone.
Āman-ḍā nām-ḍe biri ? .	Ñim-nam ēte?	Nom-nū mang imi?	220. What is your name?
Ghoḍar-te kiti barsa?	Kani kuḍṭān ḍajiṅ minnum ḍē-le ?	Të kirtër ëdi din öngër ? .	221. How old is this horse?
Ne-tai Kaśmir kiti lankā?.	Tenne-sitle Kasmira dajin sanai?	Tē kurung Kāśmīr-gidī ādī sulöng ?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Āman-ḍa bobamḍa kiti goṭa kâṇḍa-ki isade ?	Wāṅ-nam-a siṅ-an ḍajiṅ oṅēr pasi-ji ḍako-ji?	Nom-nā āpong-nu adrēbo onoon oduon dutu?	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
Āiñje bahuta lankā lenchede	Nana oyon ñen middap sanai añjen-lai.	Ning löngā sulöng āngsugō	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Āiñja dādiñja kāṇḍa boka- rar-te ba-isaḍe.	Māmana ohēr pasi anina ayin sindrunnēte.	Ning-nu kökö-nu öduön äriyö mäy-nü tönän budung.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Palhān alung āsike dhobla ghoḍā.	Palu kuḍṭana gorabgop sin- lenan ḍaku.	Diyên-bö pîlê kirtar khōgîr dutu.	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.
Ghoḍār nirāte alhingata palhān un.	Gorabgop a-kiṇḍoṅ-ban siḍa	Kirtāng gīiḍāng khōgīr lātēi.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Åiñje är kåndä-te bahut bādiä-seke.	Anina oner pasin aïndam tanidan tidlai.	Māy-nō ōdu-ōn-pulai löngā ning buō.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Ār habātua sikhā-re jit- jantu sara-ke.	Anin tanlin baruna bobalan ajumte.	Tō birang-bō bāṇḍī gō-gōb- ḍutu.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Ār simsi mula-ra ghoḍā alhingata dasye-ḍe.	Anēb jaitan anin kuḍtā- laṅkan goble ḍaku.	Sulo pālu kirtā-bo lēing- dutu.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Ār bokarar-ta kākār ati jālhing.	Anina uban anina äyin-sitle lanka.	Māy-nō bōbrō māy-nō tōnān kurung tīr dugu.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Ār mūlar dui ṭaṅkā āṭha anna.	Kunina janati bāgu rūpai palpal.	Māy-nō sōiṭiyō bār limbē mui sāṅg ḍugu.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Āiñjā bâbañji âteyâ rasede.	Wāṅ-ñēn kuni sanna siṅ- len ḍaku.	Māy-nō (sic.) āpōng mēyēn- kā diyēn-bō dutu.	233. My father lives in that small house.
Ţańkā muin ār-te ḍiń .	Kana rūpai anin tia	Të limbë ō-māy nān-bē .	234. Give this rupee to him.
Ār-ata ṭankae gâāin	Anin-ba-sitle kuna rūpai taba.	To limbē ludoring	235. Take those rupees from him.
Ār-te achha-kari abhaj-e donda bathare.	Anin karranle tidan-tille luadan bāte tobāda.	Ö-māy lõngā bungnēnagē ibudang tölnēn.	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Kuā-ra dā gen	Sindān-sitle gendaba .	Kui-dāng nēngēn	237. Draw water from the well.
Āiñje āgata hanade	Ñēn samanle era	Nîng-nō sumōngnēi ānēn .	238. Walk before me.
Āman-ḍa kinmamata (sic.) āḍi-a kāṇḍa ḍeṇḍe ?	Botena rabal kiṇḍoṅ-ba-nam eraite ?	Lāy-lū ōḍu-ōn gīiḍāṅg ŭi- ḍutu?	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
Āman-de ādi-ata me-sam- sarana.	Boten-ba kuna ñi-le ? .	Nom nãi lì-bō-nō sōbōnō? .	240. From whom did you buy that?
Gāŭ-ā dokānu-a sainsarana .	Gorjan kōmaţin-ba	Ungöm-nű sáhukár söbö- nam.	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.
	!		T. & M.—275

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DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

INTRODUCTION.

The Dravidian family comprises all the principal languages of Southern India. The total number of speakers is, in round numbers, about fifty-seven millions. Only a very small portion live within the territory covered by this Survey. It has, however, been found advisable to give a short sketch of the principal Dravidian languages without reference to habitat, in order to make it easier to compare and classify the North-Indian members of the family. The ensuing pages will not, therefore, only deal with such Dravidian dialects as properly fall within the scope of this Survey, but short accounts will also be given of Tamil, Malayālam, Kanarese, and Telugu, the principal Dravidian languages of the South. The minor dialects of Southern India, on the other hand, such as Koḍagu, Tulu, Toda, and Kōta, will not be described.

With regard to those southern languages which have been included, it should be noted that they have not been dealt with so fully as in the case of languages properly falling within the scope of this Survey. It has been thought sufficient to give a short introduction, a skeleton grammar, a specimen and a list of Standard Words and Phrases for each of them. They have all developed literatures, written in a different dialect. In this Survey, however, the literary dialects will not be accounted for, and the short sketches will be restricted to the colloquial standard forms of Tamil, Malayālam, Kanarese, and Telugu.

The name Dravidian is a conventional one. It is derived from the Sanskrit that a Dravida, a word which is again probably derived from an older Dramila, Damila, and is identical with the name of Tamil. Compare p. 298 below. The name Dravidian is, accordingly, identical with Tamulian, which name has formerly been used by European writers as a common designation of the languages in question. The word Dravida forms part of the denomination Andhra-Drāvida-bhāshā, the language of the Andhras (i.e., Telugu) and Dravidas (i.e., Tamilians) which Kumārila Bhatṭa (probably 7th century A.D.) employed to denote the Dravidian family. In India Dravida has been used in more than one sense. Thus the so-called five Dravidas are Telugu, Kanarese, Marāṭhī, Gujarātī, and Tamil. In Europe, on the other hand, Dravidian has long been the common denomination of the whole family of languages to which Bishop Caldwell applied it in his Comparative Grammar, and there is no reason for abandoning the name which the founder of Dravidian philology applied to this group of speeches.

The Dravidian languages occupy the whole of Southern India and the northern half of Ceylon. The northern frontier may be taken to begin at a point on the Arabian Sea about a hundred miles below Goa and to follow the western Ghats to Kolhapur. It then runs north-east in an irregular line through Hyderabad, cuts off the southern border of Berar, and continues eastwards to the Bay of Bengal. The eastern part of the frontier is not, however, anything like a continuous line. Broadly speaking, the hill country to the east of Chanda and Bhandara

is inhabited by Dravidian tribes while Aryan dialects have occupied the plains, so that we often find Dravidian dialects scattered like islets in the sea of Aryan tongues. Farther to the north we find Dravidian dialects spoken by small tribes in the Central Provinces and Chota Nagpur, and even up the banks of the Ganges at Rajmahal. Finally there is a Dravidian dialect in the far north-west, in Baluchistan.

The small Dravidian communities in the north are rapidly becoming Hinduized, and their language adopts an ever-increasing Aryan element, till it is quite superseded by Aryan speech. This process has been going on for centuries, and is still going on. At the Census of 1891 the language returns for Gōṇḍī showed a total of 1,379,580 speakers. At the same time 3,061,680 Gōṇḍs were returned. Many tribes who have formerly spoken some Dravidian dialect, now use an Aryan form of speech. In other cases the dialect still retains sufficient traces of its Dravidian origin and must be characterized as mixed. A few specimens of such semi-Dravidian languages will be found below on pp. 639 and ff.

The result of this gradual spreading of the Aryan dialects is that there must be a Dravidian element in the Aryan Dravidian element in the population whose native tongue is some Aryan form of speech. Moreover, there seems to be no doubt that the Dravidians had already been settled for some time in India when the Aryans entered the country. In the course of time the Aryans spread over the whole of Northern India. They did not, however, annihilate the Dravidians, who were, besides, probably more numerous than themselves. On the contrary, they have apparently very early adopted them into their community. The Aryan population of Northern India is not, therefore, a pure race, but contains, among others, a strong Dravidian element. We have not here to do with the anthropological side of the question, and we are not concerned with the greater or lesser prevalence of the Dravidian element in the various districts of India. What must interest us in this connexion is the question whether the Dravidian element has left any traces in the speech of the Aryan Indians. We should expect this to have been the case, and Bishop Caldwell very justly remarks:—

'As the pre-Aryan tribes, who were probably more numerous than the Aryans, were not annihilated, but only reduced to a dependent position, and eventually, in most instances, incorporated in the Aryan community, it would seem almost necessarily to follow that they would modify, whilst they adopted, the language of their conquerors, and that this modification would consist, partly in the addition of new words, and partly also in the introduction of a new spirit and tendency.'

It will be necessary, in this place, to give a short account of the various facts connected with the question and we shall first turn to the vocabulary.

There are, in all Indo-Aryan languages, a considerable number of words which cannot apparently be identified in other Indo-European languages. This is especially the case in modern vernaculars, and the old opinion was that such words had, generally speaking, been borrowed from the language of the tribes which inhabited India before the Aryan invasion. The steady progress of philological studies in later years has enabled us to retrace an ever-increasing portion of such words to Sanskrit, and many scholars now hold that there have hardly been any loans at all. It has, however, been overlooked that it is not sufficient to show that a word is found in Sanskrit, or even in the Vedic dialects, in order to prove that it belonged to the original language of the Aryans. If Bishop Caldwell is right in the opinion just quoted, the foreign element must reach back into the oldest times, and it would be necessary to trace the dubious words not only in Sanskrit, but also in other

languages of the Indo-European family. That is exactly what modern philology has, in many cases, failed to do. There are e.g. a number of verbal roots in Sanskrit which do not appear to occur in other Indo-European forms of speech. The same is the case with a considerable portion of the vocabulary. We cannot here go into details, the less so because we do not as yet possess a complete etymological dictionary of Sanskrit. There is, however, every probability for the supposition that at least a considerable portion of such words and bases has been borrowed from the Dravidas. Lists of such words will be found in most of the works dealing with Dravidian philology, e.g. in Bishop Caldwell's grammar, and in the Rev. F. Kittel's Kanarese dictionary. I shall only mention one instance. The word Siva is already in the Vedas used as an epithet of the god Rudra, and it is well known that Siva has become one of the principal deities of the Hindu pantheon. It has been asserted that this use of the word siva must be explained from the influence of a Dravidian siva, red. Now the word rudra in the Rigveda often seems to mean 'red,' and it seems probable that the conception of the god Rudra-Siva has a tinge of Dravidian I have mentioned this word because it shows how fundamental the Dravidian influence on the Aryans can have been, not only philologically, but on the whole method of thought. For further suggestions the student is referred to the various standard works quoted under the different Dravidian languages.

It seems to be a general rule that a people which invades a foreign country, to some degree adopts the pronunciation of its new home, partly as a result of the influence of the climate, and partly also on Phonology. account of the intermixture with the old inhabitants. This has also generally been supposed to have been the case in India. Thus there has been a long discussion as to whether the Aryans have adopted the cerebral letters from the Dravidas or have developed them independently. Good reasons have been adduced for both suppositions, and the question has not as yet been decided. The Indo-European languages do not seem to have possessed those letters. They had a series of dentals, which were not, however, pronounced as pure dentals by putting the tongue between the teeth, but probably as alveolars, the tongue being pressed against the root of the upper teeth. It is a well-known fact that these sounds have in India partly become dentals and partly cerebrals. The cerebrals are in most cases derived from compound letters where the old dentals were preceded by an l. Similar changes also occur in other Indo-European languages, and it is therefore quite possible that the Indo-Aryan cerebrals have been developed quite independently. The cerebral letters, however, form an essential feature of Dravidian phonology, and it therefore seems probable that Dravidian influence has been at work and at least given strength to a tendency which can, it is true, have taken its origin among the Aryans themselves.

Another point in which the Dravidian element among the Aryans seems to have influenced Aryan pronunciation is in the use of the consonant l. Most Indo-European languages possess an l as well as an r. The use of l in Sanskrit and on the whole in Indo-Aryan languages is, however, quite different from that in other languages of the same family. L is used in many words where other languages have r, and vice versā. The old Eranian dialects did not possess an l, and its irregular use in Indo-Aryan makes it probable that we are here face to face with an alien influence. Now it seems almost certain that such an influence can only have been Dravidian. The change of r to l is, as has long ago been pointed out by Bishop Caldwell, quite common in Dravidian languages. The supposition of a Dravidian influence in this respect is in thorough

agreement with the fact that the use of l in Indo-Aryan languages has steadily increased, from the Vedic times down to the present day.

There are some further features in Indo-Aryan phonology where it seems reasonable to think of Dravidian influence. I may mention the softening of hard consonants after vowels in the Prakrits, not only in single words, but also in compounds; the double pronunciation of the palatals in Marāṭhī; the change of ch to s and of s to h in many modern vernaculars, and so forth.

The influence, however, which the Dravidian languages seem to have exercised on Aryan inflexion are of much greater importance, and pervades the whole language.

With regard to the inflexion of nouns we may mention the use of postpositions as case suffixes, the postpositions being usually the same in the singular and the plural. This peculiarity the Indo-Aryan vernaculars share with Dravidian, but also with the other non-Aryan languages of India, and it would not therefore be safe to base any conclusion upon this fact. Still it is remarkable that the postpositions are often added not to the base but to an oblique form, just as is the case in Dravidian, where the oblique form is commonly used as a genitive. The use of a separate oblique form is, moreover, most extensive in languages such as Marāthī and Bihārī, where the Dravidian influence must presumably have been strongest. Note also that the genitive is, in both families, an adjective.

The use of two different forms of the objective case is distinctly Dravidian. We cannot, from an Aryan point of view, explain why a postposition should, in this case, be added to a noun denoting a rational being, and not to other nouns as well. In the Dravidian languages, on the other hand, all nouns can broadly be divided into two classes, such as denote rational beings, and such as are destitute of reason, whether animate or inanimate. The Hindi rule for the use of a postposition in the objective case agrees with that prevailing in Tamil and Malayalam. In Telugu, on the other hand, animals are, in this respect, treated as rational beings, but this state of affairs is probably due to Munda influence.

If we compare the Dravidian and the Indo-European verb we are at once struck by a considerable difference. The Indo-European languages have developed a richly varied system of real verbal tenses, while the Dravidians do not use ordinary tenses but employ forms which can best be described as participles or nouns of agency derived from such participles. The Dravidian verb in this respect also differs from the Tibeto-Burman one, which can most properly be described as a verbal noun.

The Dravidian participles are commonly used without any addition, as conjunctive participles, in subordinate sentences. In other cases they are used in the same way in some dialects, but usually pronominal suffixes are added in order to indicate the person of the subject. The same is, to a great extent, the case with ordinary nouns and nouns of agency, when they are used as verbs.

It is easy to see how a corresponding tendency has gradually pervaded the Indo-Aryan languages and changed their whole appearance.

In the Vedas we still find the Indo-European principle of using a varied system of verbal tenses. But already in the old Epics all this has changed. According to Prof. Whitney, the number of verbal forms in the Nala and the Bhagavadgītā is only one-tenth of that found in the Rigvēda. In classical Sanskrit almost every verbal tense was replaced by a participle, and in the modern vernaculars there are only traces of the

old tenses, and new ones have been formed from the old participles, just as is the case in the Dravidian forms of speech. The use of personal terminations in many Indo-Aryan vernaculars, and the substitution of the nominative for the case of the agent in some of them point in the same direction.

Side by side with this development we find that the conjunctive participle is used more and more in secondary sentences, another point of analogy with the Dravidian languages. In the Epics this form is used thrice as often as in the Vedas and in the later literature its use is steadily increasing.

There are two more verbal forms which look like Dravidian innovations, viz., the periphrastic future and the active perfect participle.

The periphrastic future is very sparingly used in the Brāhmanas and only becomes more frequent in the later Sanskrit literature. It is, as is well known, formed from the noun of agency by adding the verb substantive in the first and second persons. Now the noun of agency is a present or indefinite form and not a future. In Dravidian languages, on the other hand, the indefinite present is commonly also a future. The analogy becomes still more striking when we remember that the verb substantive is only added in the first two persons, just as nouns of agency in the Dravidian languages are used without any additions as verbs in the third person singular, while pronominal suffixes are added in the first and second persons. Forms such as kartāsmi, I shall do; kartāsi, thou wilt do; kartārah, they will do, thus directly correspond to Gōṇḍī kīātōn-ā, I do, lit. I am a doer; kāātōn-ī, thou doest; kāātōr, they do.

Forms such as Sanskrit kritavān, one who has done, are also peculiar to later Sanskrit. The suffix vat is, of course, Aryan, but it is not easily understood how an active form can be arrived at by adding the suffix to a passive participle. In the Dravidian languages, on the other hand, the past participle is active as well as passive, and a noun of agency is formed from it in all dialects. Thus from Tamil śeydu, having done, we form śeydavan, one who has done. The close agreement between kritavān and śeydavan is, of course, partly accidental. There cannot, however, be any reasonable doubt about the former having been influenced by the latter. In Sanskrit kritavān is an anomalous form without analogy in connected languages, while Tamil śeydavan is quite regular.

The order of words in modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars, with the governed before the governing word and the verb invariably at the end of the sentence, is also in agreement with Dravidian principles. It is, however, here also possible to think of an influence exercised by other non-Aryan languages, and I only mention the fact that both families agree also in this respect.

Enough has, however, been said to show that the Dravidian element in the Aryan population of India has not failed to leave its stamp on the language.

We do not know how long the Dravidians have been settled in India. It seems certain that they had long lived in the country when the Aryans entered it, but we do not know whether they are to be considered as autochthones or as having, in their turn, immigrated into India from some other country. The fact that a tribe speaking a language which is clearly Dravidian is found in the extreme north-west of India has been adduced by Bishop Caldwell and others as indicating that the Dravidians, like the Aryans, must have entered India from the north-west.

Bishop Caldwell has collected a vast heap of materials to show that the Dravidian languages point in the same direction. He follows the Danish philologist Rask in classing Dravidian as a member of the so-called Scythian family, and this statement has since been repeated over and over again.

The denomination Scythian is a very unhappy one. The Scythian words which have been handed down by Greek writers are distinctly Scythian family. Eranian, i.e., they belong to the Indo-European family. But nevertheless the word has been used as a common designation of all those languages of Asia and Europe which do not belong to the Indo-European or Semitic families. Moreover those languages cannot, by any means, be brought together into one linguistic family. The monosyllabic languages of China and neighbouring countries are just as different from the dialects spoken in the Caucasus or from the speech of the Finns and Magyars, as is the Indo-European family. The points in which they agree are such features as recur in almost all languages, and they are, by no means, sufficient to outweigh the great and fundamental characteristics in which they differ from each With regard to the Dravidian languages the attempt to connect them with other linguistic families outside India is now generally recognized as a failure, and we must still consider them as an isolated family. The possibility of a connexion with the Munda languages has been discussed in the introduction to that family. See above pp. 2 and ff. The attempts made to show a closer connexion with the Indo-European family have proved just as futile, and one of the latest theories, which compares the language of the Chins of Farther India with the Dravidian family, does not even appear to have attracted the notice of scholars.1

The best known Dravidian languages are Tamil, Malayalam, Kanarese, and Telugu. They have all for a long time been used as literary languages. Enumeration of languages. Their literature is, in the case of all of them, written in a language which differs more or less from every-day speech, and is usually recognized as a separate dialect. The difference between the two forms of each speech is often considerable, and it would for instance be a vain attempt to make an uneducated Tamil read and understand the literature of his native tongue. The relation between the literary and colloquial forms of the languages in question has not, however, been fully explained, and the question cannot be taken up in this place where we are only concerned with the spoken form, the more so because none of the languages in question properly fall within the scope of this Survey. We can only note the fact that the literary dialects usually represent a stage of development older than the colloquial forms. On the other hand, they are apparently based on different dialects, and older forms are often preserved in the dialects spoken at the present day. For further details the student should consult Bishop Caldwell's grammar, mentioned under authorities below.

The four Dravidian languages mentioned above will be dealt with in the ensuing pages. There are, on the other hand, some Dravidian forms of speech which have not been included in the present Survey, viz., Tulu, Kodagu, Tuda, and Kōta. I subjoin some short notes on them from Bishop Caldwell's grammar:—

'Notwithstanding its want of a literature, Tulu is one of the most highly developed languages of the Dravidian family. It looks as if it had been cultivated for its own sake, and it is well worthy of a careful

The question about the connexion which has been stated to exist between Australian and Dravidian has by no means been solved by Prof. Friedrich Müller. It is not, however, possible to take it up again in this place.

study. This language is spoken in a very limited district and by a very small number of people. The Chandragiri and Kalyanapuri rivers, in the district of Canara, are regarded as its ancient boundaries, and it does not appear ever to have extended much beyond them. The number of the Tulu-speaking people has been found not to exceed 300,000 [at the Census of 1901, 535,210 speakers were returned], and their country is broken in upon to such a degree by other languages that Tulu might be expected soon to disappear. All Tulu Christians are taught Canarese as well as Tulu. Tulu, however, shows, it is said, no signs of disappearing, and the people have the reputation of being the most conservative portion of the Dravidian race. The name Tulu means, according to Mr. Brigel, mild, meek, humble, and is to be regarded therefore as properly denoting the people, not their language.

Tulu was supposed by Mr. Ellis to be merely a dialect of Malayāļam; but although Malayāļam characters were, and still are, ordinarily employed by Tulu Brāhmans in writing Sanskrit, in consequence of the prevalence of Malayāļam in the vicinity, the supposition that Tulu was a dialect of Malayāļam can no longer be entertained. The publication of Mr. Brigel's "Tulu Grammar" [Mangalore, 1872] has thrown much new light on this peculiarly interesting language. It differs far more widely from Malayāļam than Malayāļam does from Tamil. It differs widely, but not so widely, from Canarese; still less so from Coorg. The dialect from which it differs most widely is Tamil. . .

Coorg is a small but interesting district, formerly an independent principality, beautifully situated amongst the ridges of the Western Ghauts, between Mysore on the east, and North Malabar and South Canara on the west. The native spelling of Coorg is usually Kodagu, properly Kudagu, from kuda, west, a meaning of the word which is usual in Ancient Tamil. . . . It is not quite clear to me yet to which of the Dravidian dialects it (the language of Coorg) is most closely allied. On the whole, however, it seems safest to regard it as standing about midway between old Canarese and Tulu. Like Tulu it has the reputation of puzzling strangers by the peculiarities of its pronunciation. A grammar of the Coorg language has been published by Major Cole, Superintendent of Coorg [Bangalore, 1867] . .

Toda, properly Tuda, is the language of the Tudas or Tudavars, a primitive and peculiarly interesting tribe inhabiting the Neilgherry hills. It is now regarded as certain that the Tudas were not the original inhabitants of those hills, though it is still far from certain who the original inhabitants were . . . An interesting book has lately [London, 1873] been written by Colonel Marshall, entitled "A Phrenologist among the Todas," in which everything that is known of this people is fully described. The same book contains a valuable epitome of the grammar of their language by the Rev. Dr. Pope . . . I shall content myself here with transcribing the concluding paragraphs . . .

"The language seems to have been originally old Canarese, and not a distinct dialect. The Tudas were probably immigrants from the Canarese country and have dwelt in the Nilagiris for about 800 years. A few Tamil forms were introduced by the Poligars. Intercourse with the Badagas has probably modernised a few of the forms, and introduced some words. Of Telugu influences I see no trace. Nor can I trace any resemblance in Tuda to Malayalam in any of the points where that dialect differs from its sisters."

The language of the Kōtas, a small tribe of helot craftsmen inhabiting the Neilgherry hills may be considered as a very old and very rude dialect of the Canarese, which was carried thither by a persecuted low-caste tribe at some very remote period.'

It will be seen that all those minor southern dialects are more closely related to Kanarese than to any other Dravidian language.

The remaining Dravidian languages are all spoken within the districts covered by this Survey. They are Kurukh, Malto, Kui, Gōṇḍī, and Brāhūī. Some dialects such as Kōlāmī and Naikī have usually been considered as forms of Gōṇḍī, but will in this Survey be separated from that form of speech.

Tamil has usually been considered to be the Dravidian language which has preserved most traces of the original form of speech from which all other Dravidian dialects are derived. Some points will be drawn attention to in the ensuing pages where this does not appear to be the case, and in many peculiarities other Dravidian languages such as Telugu have preserved older forms and represent a more ancient state of development. It would therefore be more correct to describe Tamil as a dialect like the other ones, without any special claim to antiquity. On the other hand, it seems certain that no other Dravidian language has developed the common Dravidian principles with so great consistency as Tamil. We shall therefore make that form of speech the base of our classification.

Tamil and Malayāļam are two sister dialects of the same language. Old Malayāļam literature has been much influenced by Tamil, but the modern language nevertheless preserves traces of a more ancient stage of development than is the case with Tamil. In this respect the principal point is the use in Malayāļam of conjunctive participles instead of the ordinary verbal tenses. In most particulars, however, Malayāļam and Tamil so closely agree with each other that the only reason for separating them as two different languages is the fact that each has developed a literature of its own.

Kanarese is also closely related to Tamil, and the two languages form together one of the principal groups of the Dravidian family. They alone have a regular feminine gender. The various suffixes of the plural of rational and irrational nouns respectively are essentially the same in both, and they are more consistently distinguished than in most other connected forms of speech. Both languages also agree in the principles for the formation of the oblique base, and in other particulars. It has already been remarked that Kumārila Bhatṭa (7th century A.D.) styled the Dravidian languages as \$\bar{Andhra-Drāvida-bhāshā}\$, the speech of \$\bar{A}\$ndhras and Dravidas. If this denomination denotes a difference of dialect, which is by no means certain, Kanarese and Tamil would be included in the \$Drāvida-bhāshā\$, as against Telugu, the \$\bar{A}ndhra-bhāshā\$.

In some points, however, Kanarese differs from Tamil. Thus it has only one form of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person, just as is the case in Gōṇḍi and Brāhūi. It agrees with Telugu in the formation of the oblique cases of the singular of the pronouns 'I' and 'thou,' in possessing a present participle and in other similar points. On the whole Kanarese has more points of analogy with Telugu than has Tamil.

The smaller South-Indian languages, Tulu, Kodagu, Toda and Kōta, must be classed as lying between Tamil and Kanarese, nearer to the latter than to the former.

A similar position must be ascribed to Kurukh and Malto. Those two forms of speech are very closely related. They have no separate feminine singular, but use the neuter instead, just as is the case in Kui, Gōṇḍi, and Telugu. Their nouns have no separate oblique base, as is also the case in Brāhūi and often in Telugu. Their personal pronouns are most closely related to those used in Tamil and Kanarese, especially the old dialects of those languages. Their present tense is formed as in Kanarese, and the formation of the past tense most closely corresponds to that found in vulgar Tamil, and so on. Kurukh and Malto must therefore be derived from the same dialect as that which became the common origin of Tamil and Kanarese.

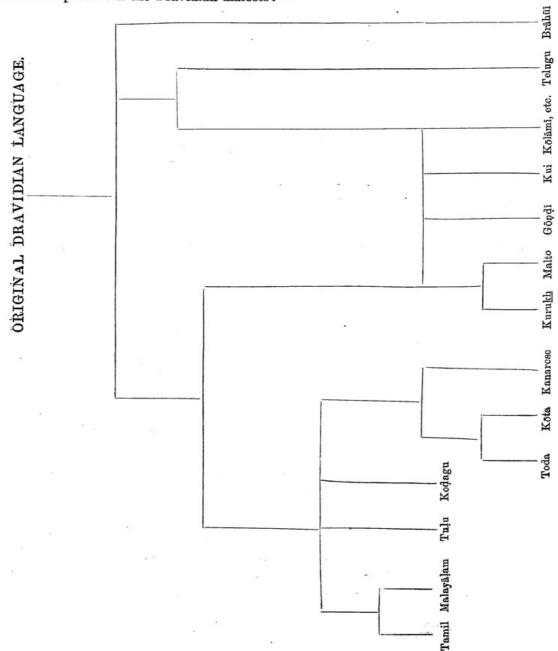
Kui and Göndi occupy a similar position, but gradually approach Telugu. They differ from other connected languages in using the neuter instead of the feminine both in the plural and in the singular. They follow the same principles as Tamil and Kanarese in the formation of the plural, and mainly agree with Kanarese in the formation of the present and past tenses. Both languages gradually merge into Telugu, and they may be described as being links between that language and Tamil-Kanarese. They are, on the whole, more closely connected with the latter forms of speech than with Telugu.

Some minor dialects such as Kōlāmī, Naikī, and the Bhīlī spoken in the Pusad Taluqa of Basim, should be classed in a similar way. They use the neuter singular as a feminine, like Telugu, Gōndī, Kui, etc., but the oblique base is formed as in Tamil and Kanarese. In this respect the dialects in question also agree with Gōndī. The plural suffixes agree with Kanarese dialects and Telugu; the numerals are mainly the same as

in Telugu; the personal pronouns as in Kui, while the pronoun and, he, stands midway between Old Kanarese avam and Telugu vādu. The same can be said with regard to the verbal tenses and the pronominal suffixes. Those dialects will, therefore, be inserted between Gōndī and Telugu.

That last-named language, in many respects, occupies an independent position and can be characterized as the only descendant of the Andhra-dialect of Old Dravidian.

The remaining Dravidian language, the Brāhūī of Baluchistan, is no more an unmixed form of speech. It has been so largely influenced from various sources that it is only in general principles and in some few but important words that its character as a Dravidian language can be recognized. It has for centuries been separated from the other Dravidian tongues, and must have branched off at a very early period, when the difference between the dialects was as yet unimportant. We must, therefore, class Brāhūī as an independent group. The diagram which follows will illustrate the mutual relationship between the Dravidian dialects:—



The number of speakers of the various Dravidian languages is exhibited in the table which follows. It is based on the reports of the Census of 1891 and on local estimates made for the purposes of this Survey. The figures returned at the Census of 1901 have been added in a second column:—

										Es	timated number.	Census of 1901.
Tamil											16,223,700	17,494,901
Malayāļa	m										5,425,979	6,022,131
Kanares	е										9,710,832	10,368,515
Tulu		•	•								491,728	535,210
Kodagu	•			•		•					37,218	39,191
Toda	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				736	805
Köta	•	•	•	•		•			•		1,201	1,300
Kurukh			•								503,980	609,721
Malto			•	•							12,801	60,777
Gōṇḍī			•								1,322,190	1,123,974
Kui	•		•	•							318,592	494,099
Kölāmī a	and l	Naikī		•	•						23,295	1,505
Telugu											19,783,901	20,697,264
Brāhūī		•	•		. •	•		•	•		165,500	48,589
					•			To	TAL		54,021,653	57,497,982

In addition to the Dravidian languages proper, specimens will be given of two dialects which have now become Aryan forms of speech, though the tribes in question appear to have formerly used a form of Gōnḍō. They are spoken by 2,452 individuals in Berar and the Central Provinces. If we add these figures to the total for the Dravidian family, we arrive at the following grand total:—

							To	TAL		54,024,105
Semi-Dravidian dialects	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	2,452
Dravidian family .										

General characteristics of the Dravidian languages do not belong to any other linguistic family but constitute a group of their own. The remarks which follow are an attempt to collect and arrange a few facts which seem to throw light on the mutual relationship of the various languages of the group, and above all such features as constitute the principal characteristics of the whole family.

There is in most Dravidian languages a strong tendency to pronounce a short vowel after every final consonant. This sound is shorter than an ordinary short vowel and is considered by native grammarians to be equal to a fourth of a long vowel. It should be compared with the so-called off-glide of modern phonetics, the indistinct sound uttered when the tongue is moved from one position to another.

In Tamil a short u is heard after every final k, \acute{s} , \acute{t} , \acute{t} , p, and r; in Kanarese and in grammatically written Telugu every word must end in a vowel, and a short u is added after every final consonant. It is, however, often dropped in Kanarese and colloquial Telugu. Thus Telugu gurramu, a horse, is usually pronounced gurram. In Malayālam the short final sound is often an a, and in Northern Malayālam it is so indistinct as to be scarcely audible. The case in Tulu is similar. With regard to the remaining Dravidian languages we have no trustworthy information.

Dr. Burnell has drawn attention to the fact that this short final u does not occur in the Tamil words mentioned by Kumārila Bhatta in his Tantravārttika. There we find chōr, Tamil śōru, boiled rice; pāmp, Tamil pāmbu, snake; vair, Tamil vayiru, belly. It would be rash to infer from this fact that the pronunciation was then different from that of the present day.

The Dravidian languages possess a short as well as a long variety of the vowels e and o. The usual pronunciation of these sounds when initial is ye, $y\bar{e}$; vo, $v\bar{o}$, respectively.

Harmonic sequence.—In many languages there is a distinct tendency to approach the sound of vowels in consecutive syllables to each other. This tendency sometimes affects the preceding and sometimes the following vowel. It is generally known as the law of harmonic sequence of vowels, and it was long considered as a characteristic feature of the so-called 'Scythian' languages. Thus the Finnish vowels are divided into three classes, hard, a, o and u; soft, \ddot{a} , \ddot{o} , \ddot{u} (the vowels in German 'Bär,' 'schön,' and 'für,' respectively); and neutral, e and i. Now a hard vowel cannot be used in the syllable following on a soft one, and vice versā. Thus we find Suoma-lainen, a Fin, but $Ven\ddot{a}$ -läinen, a Russian.

A similar tendency has been found to exist in Telugu where short i and u in many cases are interchangeable in such a way that i is used when a neighbouring syllable contains i, \bar{i} or ei, and u in all other cases. The facts are as follows.

The suffixes of the dative and accusative have the form ki, ni, respectively, after the vowels i, \bar{i} , and ei, while ku, nu, respectively, are used after other vowels. Thus, tammuniki, to the brother; but gurramunaku, to the horse. The suffixed conjunction nni, nnu, and, changes according to similar principles. Thus, \bar{a} manishi-nni \bar{i} manishi-nni, that man and this man; $m\bar{i}ru$ -nnu $m\bar{i}$ tammudu-nnu, you and your brother.

The pronominal suffixes used in the conjugation of Telugu verbs end in a short i, if the preceding syllable contains an i, \bar{i} , or ei, and in u in all other cases. Thus, $kottin\bar{a}$ -nu, I struck; unti-ni, I was.

In such cases the final vowel is changed so as to approach the sound of the preceding one. In other cases the vowel of the preceding syllable is assimilated to that of the following. This takes place in such words as contain an i in the last, or last two syllables, the i being changed to u before the plural suffix lu. Thus the plural of katti, a knife, is kattu-lu, knives. This last change, however, does not take place if the i is found in the first syllable of a word or is followed by di, li, or ri. Thus, bidda-lu, children; kaugili, an embrace, plural kaugil-lu.

These are the principal instances of this tendency in Telugu. In other cases an i and a u are freely used in consecutive syllables. And even the dative suffix ku is, in the case of the pronoun of the second person, added after an $\bar{\imath}$. Thus, $n\bar{\imath}$ -ku, to thee; $m\dot{\imath}$ -ku, to you.

There are scarcely any traces of a similar tendency in other Dravidian languages. In Kanarese, it is true, we find parallel forms such as $m\bar{a}dutt\bar{e}$ -ne, I do; $m\bar{a}dide$ -nu, I did; but here the vowel which is changed is the very short sound which is added after every consonant, and forms such as $m\bar{a}d\bar{e}$ -nu, I may do, show that there must here be another reason for the change, though I am unable to see the law regulating the matter.

Nothing can, therefore, in this respect be inferred from the changes in the Dravidian vowels which have been mentioned above. We should remember that only Telugu shows clear traces of an adaptation of the vowels of consecutive syllables which can, with any probability, be compared with the harmonic sequence in Finnish and similar languages. And even in Telugu there is no consistency in the matter. It almost looks as if we have, in this case, to do with an influence from without, and such an influence could only have been exercised by the Munda languages. Compare the remarks on the vowels in Santālī on pp. 37 and ff.

The most interesting feature with regard to Dravidian consonants is the common interchange between hard and soft consonants. There is a tendency in all Dravidian languages, which in Tamil and Malayālam has become a law, that no word can begin with a soft consonant, and that every single consonant in the middle of a word or compound word must be soft. The same is the case if the consonant is preceded by a nasal. The effect of this law can best be seen in the case of borrowed words. Thus Sanskrit danta, a tooth, becomes tandam in Tamil.

This Tamilian law is the same as that prevailing in many Tibeto-Burman languages, especially in Burmese. In the case of those latter languages it is possible to see how the tendency is gradually gaining ground, and it also seems possible to account for it to some extent. This much is at least certain that the original Tibeto-Burman language freely used soft consonants in the beginning of words, and the rule that every consonant in the middle of a word must be soft is only found in Burmese.

With regard to the Dravidian languages it has already been remarked that only Tamil and Malayālam are consistent in the interchange of hard and soft consonants. And the law in question does not seem to be of a very ancient date even in those languages. The word Tamil itself has early been borrowed by the Arans in the form Damila, and Kumārila. Bhatṭa has handed down the Tamil word $p\bar{a}mbu$, a snake, in the form $p\bar{a}mp$. Both these forms point to the conclusion that the tendency to change every initial soft consonant to the corresponding hard one and only to tolerate soft single consonants in the middle of a word is a comparatively modern departure in the history of the Dravidian languages.

Most of the phonetical changes of Dravidian consonants differ in the different languages, and they do not, therefore, concern us in this connexion. I shall only mention some few features which recur in more than one language and are of importance for what follows.

The gutturals are often changed into palatals. Compare Kanarese kinna, Telugu chinna, Tamil śinna, small; Kanarese kivi, Telugu chevi, Tamil śevi, an ear; Göndī kīyā, Telugu chēya, Tamil śeya, to do; Tamil kāykku and kāyckchu, boil.

The palatals are further often interchangeable with dentals. Compare Tamil eindu and $a\tilde{n}ju$, five; $paditt\tilde{e}n$ and vulgar $padichch\tilde{e}n$, I learnt. In vulgar Tamil and in Malayālam a chch almost always corresponds to tt in High Tamil after i and ei. Compare Malayālam chirichcha, High Tamil $\acute{siritta}$, that laughed.

We are not as yet able to trace the laws according to which such changes take place. It seems, however, probable that a guttural was, in most of such cases, the original sound, so that, e.g., Brāhūi kun, eat; kar-ak, do, represent a more ancient stage of development than Tamil tinnu, eat; sey, do.

G is further sometimes interchangeable with v; thus, Tamil aruvar, Telugu aruguru, seven.

Final m sometimes interchanges with n. Thus, Tamil palam and palan, fruit; Old Kanarese avam, modern avanu, he; Tamil -um, Telugu -nnu, and; Tamil nām, Brāhūī nan, we, and so forth.

The change of n to d is especially frequent in Telugu. Compare Kanarese avanu, Telugu vādu, he; Telugu tammudu, brother, acc. tammuni and tammudi; atadu and atanu, he. Compare also Brāhūī ōde, him; Kōī ōndu, Parjī ōd, he, etc.

I shall finally only note the common change of r to l which has already been mentioned in another connexion. According to Bishop Caldwell the opposite change of l to r also occurs, but not nearly so frequently. A good instance of the common tendency is the vulgar pronunciation of the borrowed Tamil word rakshi, save, which is lakshi or latchi.

For further details Bishop Caldwell's Grammar should be consulted. Most of the illustrations of phonetic changes quoted in the preceding pages have been taken from his book, which is still our principal source for the study of Dravidian languages. The vulgar dialects of Southern India must, however, be thoroughly examined before we shall be able to judge of the history of Dravidian sounds with something approaching to certainty, and it is therefore much to be wished that a linguistic survey of Southern India should be taken in hand.

Inflexion of Nouns.—The noun is one of the most characteristic features of Dravidian languages, and it will be necessary to give a summary of the principal facts connected with it.

Gender.—Dravidian nouns are divided into two classes, which Tamil grammarians denote by the terms high-caste and casteless. The former include such nouns as denote beings endowed with reason, the latter all other nouns. This distinction is a peculiarity of the Dravidian languages, and I do not know of any parallel in other linguistic families. We shall hereafter denote the casteless nouns neuter.

The Dravidians of course knew the two natural genders, and they distinguished them by adding words meaning 'male 'and 'female' respectively. But this distinction has nothing to do with grammar.

In the case of high-caste nouns, however, gender is, at least in most languages of the family, distinguished by the addition of pronominal suffixes. Such suffixes consist of the terminations of the demonstrative pronoun, and they can be added to most high-caste nouns. In the plural there is no difference between the masculine and feminine genders. In the singular, on the other hand, there are separate suffixes for the two, at least in Tamil, Malayalam, and Kanarese, the masculine suffix being an, the feminine al. Compare

Tamil avan, he; aval, she. We know that the feminine suffix al was already in use in the 7th century, for Kumārila mentions āl as a strī-pratyaya, i.e. feminine suffix.

Brāhūī does not distinguish the genders even in the case of rational beings. Most other languages of the family, Kurukh, Malto, Kui, Gōṇḍī, Kōlāmī, and Telugu, have no feminine singular but use the neuter instead. The same is the case in Kurumvārī, a dialect of Kanarese. Kui and Gōṇḍī also use the neuter gender in the plural in order to denote feminine nouns.

Bishop Caldwell compares the feminine suffix al with the termination in Telugu $k\bar{o}dalu$, a daughter-in-law; Kui $ku\bar{a}li$, a Kui woman, and further with Telugu $\bar{a}du$, female. Compare also Kurukh $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, a woman. Traces of a feminine suffix $\bar{a}l$ or $\bar{a}r$ are occasionally met with in Gōndī where it is used for the feminine and singular neuter in verbal forms such as $mand\bar{a}l$, it is (Mandla); $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}r$, she, or it, will do. There are thus some indications that the suffix al has once been used over a wider area in order to form feminine words. Telugu further possesses some feminine pronouns such as $\bar{a}bide$ and $\bar{a}me$, she. Compare also okadu, one man; okate, one woman; okati, one thing. On the other hand, there are also some traces of the use of a feminine suffix corresponding to the Telugu feminine and neuter suffix adi in Tamil and Kanarese. Thus, Tamil $vann\bar{a}n$, a washerman; $vann\bar{a}ti$, a washerwoman; Kanarese okkalati, a farmer's wife.

Nouns denoting women and goddesses are accordingly, in almost all dialects, treated as high-caste nouns in the plural. In the singular, on the other hand, there is a double tendency. Tamil, Malayālam, and Kanarese use a separate female form of which there appear to be some few traces in other Dravidian languages, while all other dialects substitute the neuter. The analogy from the plural seems to indicate that this latter tendency is an innovation of the languages in question, and that the feminine singular of rational nouns did not originally agree with the neuter. I may mention as a possibility that the feminine singular suffix al in Tamil and Kanarese is only a modified form of the masculine an. It will be shown under the head of Gondi that there are distinct traces in that language of a system of inflexion of nouns where rational masculine and feminine bases form their cases from an oblique base ending in n while the oblique base of neuter nouns ends in t. Though the latter form is now used in most nouns it is just probable that we have here to do with the last traces of an older state of affairs where the feminine singular, like the feminine plural, agreed with the masculine. We are not, however, as yet in a position to arrive at a final decision, and the question must be left open.

It should be noted, in this commexion, that in Kurukh the speech of women when they are talking amongst themselves differs somewhat from that of men or of men to women in the conception of gender. In the singular, neuter forms are always used to denote the feminine. In the plural, however, feminine nouns are put in the masculine plural by men and by women when talking to men. When women talk to each other they use the neuter form also in the plural.

Number.—The Dravidian languages have two numbers, the singular and the plural. In this respect they agree with the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars, while Sanskrit, like the Munda languages, possesses a dual in addition to the singular and the plural.

Neuter nouns are not always pluralized, the singular form being, in numerous cases, used as a plural as well. The plural suffix of rational nouns is identical with the termination of the plural demonstrative pronoun denoting men and women. There is also a

plural suffix which takes different forms in the different dialects; thus, Tamil gal, colloquial ga, $\bar{a}l$, \bar{a} , $\bar{a}ng$; Kanarese galu, colloquial $g\bar{o}l$, $g\bar{o}d$, l, $l\bar{a}$; Göndī k, ng, sk; Kui $g\bar{a}$, $ng\bar{a}$, $sk\bar{a}$; Telugu lu; Brāhūī $\bar{a}k$, k. This suffix is probably originally a neuter suffix. It is, however, very commonly used to denote rational nouns as well. Nouns containing a neuter pronoun form their plural in accordance with the neuter plural pronouns.

Case.—The various cases are formed on the agglutinative method by adding postpositions. Those postpositions are the same in the singular and in the plural. The usual case postpositions are not used as independent words and cannot stand by themselves, but are only added to other words. This is the reason for the semi-inflexional appearance of the Dravidian languages.

The postpositions are often added to the simple base which appears in the nominative. This base is, in such cases, also used as a genitive. This is, for instance, the case with such nouns as agree with the demonstrative pronoun in form. Thus, Tamil manidan, a man; accusative manidan-ei. The nominative of such words has often been changed in the various dialects according to special phonetical laws. The oblique base or genitive, however, generally retains the old form. Thus, Telugu tammudu from *tammunu, a brother; genitive and oblique base tammuni; Kui lāvenju, a young man; dative lāvēni-ki, etc.

Another group of nouns form the oblique base by adding an element the most characteristic component of which seems to be t. Compare Tamil maram, tree; obl. marattu: vīdu, house; oblique vīṭṭu: Kanarese maravu, a tree; locative marad-alli: Gōndī chhauvā, child; ablative chhauvāt-āl: Telugu nūyi, well; dative nūti-ki, and so forth.

The genitive, which is usually identical with the oblique base, is formally an adjective, and the suffixes which are added to the nominative in order to form this case are also used to form adjectives. The consonant of such suffixes often coalesces with the initial vowel of a postposition. Compare e.g. Tamil $\bar{o}du$, Telugu $t\bar{o}da$, with; Tamil $i\underline{n}ru$, pronounced indru, Korvī und, literary Telugu undi, colloquial Telugu $nu\tilde{n}chi$, from, and so forth.

The accusative or case of the object is usually distinguished from the dative. In many dialects, however, the two cases are confounded. This is especially the case in Gōṇḍī and Brāhūī, but also in vulgar dialects of the other Dravidian forms of speech. This state of affairs is probably due to the influence of Aryan vernaculars.

The suffix of the accusative is, in many dialects such as Tamil and Malayālam, seldom added to neuter nouns, but is invariably applied in the case of such nouns as denote rational beings. This is quite in accordance with the common Dravidian distinction of high-caste and neuter nouns. In Telugu, on the other hand, all nouns denoting living beings take the suffix of the accusative when used as the object of transitive verbs. The same is the case in other northern dialects. It has already been suggested above that this peculiarity may be due to the influence of the Munda languages where all nouns can be divided into two classes, those that denote animate beings and inanimate objects, respectively.

The various case suffixes in actual use in the Dravidian languages cannot be discussed in this place. It should, however, be borne in mind that they do not form cases in the same way as the suffixes in the Indo-European languages. A Dravidian case is a compound consisting of a base and a governing word, and the latter is, in most cases, probably originally an independent noun. It has, however, become customary to speak of such compounds as cases and to denominate them in the same way as in the case of Indo-

European languages, nominative, accusative, dative, and so on. It has been found convenient to follow this practice in this Survey. It should, however, always be remembered that this is not quite correct. It is, accordingly, often difficult to compare the case suffixes of the different dialects. A postposition which is commonly used with the meaning of an ablative in one language, can e.g. be used to form an instrumental in another, and so forth. Moreover, the number of cases can be increased to any extent. The Dravidian grammarians have drawn up their tables of declension in imitation of Sanskrit grammar, and we shall hereafter follow this practice, which is, however, only a matter of convention. The actual Dravidian noun consists of a base, which is used without any case suffix as a nominative, and an oblique base, which is used as an adjectival genitive, and to which modifying postpositions are added in order to indicate the various relations of the noun to the surrounding words.

Adjectives.—The Dravidian adjectives are not capable of inflexion. It has already been pointed out that the genitive of ordinary nouns is in reality an adjective, and the difference between nouns and adjectives is of no great importance. Both classes of words are often also used in the function of verbs, and many adjectives can, therefore, be considered as relative participles. Adjectives frequently have the same form as the past relative participles of ordinary verbs. Such are, for instance, the Tamil śiriya, small; periya, great; uyarnda, high; tārnda, low. A similar state of affairs is common in many Tibeto-Burman languages, but it would be rash to infer a connexion between the two families from this fact. In this connexion I may mention that adjective suffixes such as ni and ti in Telugu agree with genitive suffixes in the same languages, just as the adjective in Tibetan is put into the genitive case when it precedes the qualified noun.

Numerals.—The first numerals will be found in the lists of words on pp. 648 and ff. The higher numerals are formed according to the decimal system.

The original forms of the various numerals cannot be fixed with certainty, though much useful material has been collected by Bishop Caldwell in his Comparative Grammar.

The numeral for 'nine' is formed from the numeral 'ten' by prefixing 'one' and inserting an m between both. Thus, Tamil ombadu, Kanarese ombhattu, Kōta ormpatu, Telugu tommidi, and so on. The Kōta form is clearer than the rest. The usual form for 'one' is oru, and that for 'ten' patu, padu, etc. Telugu tommidi is apparently derived from to-m-padi and presents a different form for the numeral 'one,' with an initial t. We cannot decide whether this form is more original than that occurring in other languages.

In Telugu 'eight' is emmidi or enimidi. Bishop Caldwell thinks that the original form is eni. It is, however, also possible that emmidi is formed in the same way as tommidi and literally means 'two from ten.' The neuter form for the numeral 'two' is end in Kurukh and is in Malto, and the parallelism between the two first numerals might point to the conclusion that this form is more original than the common rendu. Compare the Tamil adjective oru, one; iru, two; with the neuter nouns onru, i.e. ondru or ondu, one; rendu, two. Rendu is here perhaps derived from an older endu under the influence of the form iru.

If the Telugu *emmidi* is in reality formed in the same way as *tommidi*, nine, it seems probable that forms such as Tamil *ettu*, Kanarese *entu*, Tulu *enmā*, eight, have been abbreviated from similar forms, so that the numerals 'eight' and 'nine' have originally been compound forms meaning 'two from ten,' one from ten,' respectively.

It will be mentioned under the head of Malto that that dialect uses generic prefixes with numerals in order to indicate the qualified noun. A similar principle is common in Tibeto-Burman languages. There are no traces of it in other Dravidian forms of speech, and it therefore seems to be an innovation in Malto.

The numerals are partly used as adjectives and partly as nouns. The numeral nouns are treated as ordinary nouns, and are, accordingly, sometimes neuter and sometimes accompanied by the terminations of rational nouns.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns of the first and second persons and the reflexive pronoun in Dravidian languages form one distinct group. Compare Kurukh $\bar{e}n$, I; $\bar{e}m$, we; $n\bar{e}n$, thou; $n\bar{e}m$, you; $t\bar{e}n$, self; $t\bar{e}m$, selves. There is a singular form ending in n and a plural form ending in m. The final n of the singular can apparently be dropped. Thus we find \bar{e} and $\bar{e}nu$ in old Telugu. Bishop Caldwell suggests that it may be identical with the final n of avan, he, which is used as a masculine suffix in Tamil and most other Dravidian languages. There is no distinction of gender in the first two persons of the personal pronouns. If Bishop Caldwell's explanation of the final n is correct, it would add some probability to the theory suggested above that the feminine singular may originally have been identical with the masculine.

The final m of the plural forms is apparently a plural suffix. We find it used as such in the conjugation of verbs in High Tamil. In the case of the second person it is often replaced by r, the common plural suffix of rational nouns. Thus, Tamil $n\bar{\imath}r$ in addition to $n\bar{\imath}ngal$, you; Tulu $\bar{\imath}r$; Kui $\bar{\imath}ru$; Telugu $m\bar{\imath}ru$, old $\bar{\imath}ru$, you. Similarly we also find $t\bar{a}ru$ instead of $t\bar{a}mu$, selves.

The personal pronouns, and still more the reflexive tan, tam, very often occur in the beginning of words denoting relationship. Compare Tamil tandei, Kanarese tande, Telugu tandri, father; High Tamil endei, namdei, our father; undei, nundei, your father. Kurukh and High Tamil use all the personal pronouns in this way, in the other dialects the usage is almost exclusively restricted to the reflexive pronoun. We may, in this respect, compare a principle prevailing in many languages, for instance in the Mundā and Tibeto-Burman families. Nouns denoting relationship are there seldom used alone, but a possessive pronoun is usually prefixed or suffixed. In other words, the idea of 'father,' 'mother,' and so forth, is not conceived in the abstract, but put into relation to somebody else.'

The personal pronoun of the first person has in most Dravidian languages a double form, one including, and another excluding, the person addressed. Compare the table which follows:—

		Tamil.	Malayāļam.	Kuru <u>kh</u> .	Kui.	Teiugu.		
We,	exclusive	nā igaļ	nainaļ	ēm	āmu	ēmu, mēmu		
	inclusive	yām, nām	nām	nām	āju	manamu		

It will be seen that the exclusive form in Kurukh, Kui, and Telugu is essentially identical with the inclusive form in Tamil and Malayālam. It seems necessary to infer

¹ It is of importance that the pronouns are, in Dravidian languages, prefixed and not suffixed, as is the case in Mundā According to Pater W. Schmidt such languages as prefix a suffixless genitive use suffixes in the formation of words, and vice versā. The Dravidian languages are accordingly originally suffix languages, another reason for separating them from prefix languages such as Indo-Chinese.

that the original Dravidian language had not developed a double plural of this pronoun. The probability of such a supposition is strengthened by the fact that Kanarese, Gōnḍi and Brāhūī only possess one form for 'we.' The use of a double plural can accordingly be due to a tendency which has been adopted from a different family, and if that be the case, we can only think of the Muṇḍā languages where there is a similar set of dual and plural forms of the personal pronoun of the first person. Compare Santālī aliñ, we two; alä, we, when the person addressed is excluded, but alañ, thou and I; abon, we (including the party addressed).

The demonstrative and interrogative pronouns are sometimes adjectives and sometimes nouns substantive. In the former case the shortest forms of the bases are used without any inflexion; in the latter, suffixes indicating gender, number and case are added. These same suffixes are also added to nouns and adjectives in order to form nouns of agency and other compound nouns. Thus, Tamil avan, he, that man; aval, she, that woman; adu, it, that; nallavan, a good man; nall-aval, a good woman; nall-adu, a good thing. Compare also the remarks under the head of Verbs, below.

There is one base for the nearer and one for the remoter demonstrative. The shortest forms of them are usually i, this; a, that; as in many other languages. These bases and the corresponding interrogative base (usually e) are inflected in the same way in most Dravidian forms of speech.

There is no relative pronoun. Relative participles are used instead, as is also the case in other non-Aryan languages of India, and indeed in most languages. In Gōndī, it is true, we often find the interrogative pronoun used as a relative. This state of affairs is, however, due to Aryan influence, and relative participles are used as well. Gōndī has been reduced to writing by foreigners, and the use of the interrogative pronoun as a relative does not appear to be so common in the spoken form of the language as might be inferred from grammars and translations of the Gospels.

In the case of all these pronouns the plural is used as an honorific form in the singular. In some dialects the old singular masculine of demonstrative pronouns is no more used but always replaced by the honorific plural. This is usually the case in colloquial Tamil and always in Gōṇḍī.

Verbs.—Many bases are both nouns and verbs. Thus, Tamil $k\bar{o}\underline{n}$, a king; $k\bar{o}\underline{n}$ - $e\underline{n}$, I am a king. Nouns of agency are very commonly used as verbs. They are then inflected in person and number by means of pronominal suffixes, especially in Telugu, Gōndī, and other dialects. In Tamil this is only the case in the literary form of the language.

Such nouns of agency are freely formed from the various relative participles, and in this way tenses can be made up. Thus from the Telugu verb koṭṭa, to strike, are formed the relative participles koṭṭut-unna, who strikes; koṭṭina, who struck; koṭṭē, who would strike, who usually strikes. Nouns of agency can be formed from all these participles. Nouns of agency are partly formed by adding the full demonstrative pronoun, and partly by adding its terminations. Thus, Tamil vill-an and vill-avan, a bowman. The demonstrative pronoun 'he,' 'that,' in Telugu is vāḍu. From the participles mentioned above we can form nouns of agency such as koṭṭutunna-vāḍu, one who strikes; koṭṭina-vāḍu, one who struck; koṭṭē-vāḍu, one who usually strikes. Such forms can be used as verbs, and the person of the subject is then distinguished by adding pronominal suffixes. Thus, nēnu āyana inṭ-lō lekka vrāsē-vāḍa-nu, I his house-in accounts writer-am, I am an accountant in his house; mēmu vanṭa chēsē-vāra-mu, we cookery doers-are; we are cooks.

A form such as kottinavādu, one who struck, is essentially identical with kottinādu, e struck. Compare Tamil villan and villavan, a bowman. The same is the case with all verbal tenses in Telugu, and the verb in that language, and indeed in almost all Dravidian forms of speech, can be characterized as an inflected noun of agency. The Dravidian verb in this respect distinctly differs from the real Indo-European verb, which simply denotes the action done by the subject, and from the Tibeto-Burman verb which can be described as a noun of action without any reference to subject or object, both of which must be indicated by means of other words. The Dravidian verb is half adjective and half noun, denoting as it does the subject as the doer of the action in question. In this connexion it should also be noted that transitive and intransitive verbs are treated in the same way. There can be no question of using any such thing as the case of the agent in order to denote the subject of transitive verbs when the verb is in reality a noun of agency.

It has been mentioned above that pronominal suffixes are added in order to indicate the person of the subject. These suffixes are usually the shortest form of the personal pronouns. The full pronouns have, in the course of time, assumed different forms in the various members of the Dravidian family. The pronominal suffixes have often changed in the same way. Compare Tamil avan adeigiran, he gets; Kanarese avanu mādidanu, he did; Kui ēanju pāgitenju, he struck; Gondī or kītor, he did; Telugu vādu kottinādu, he struck. It will be seen how in such cases the common pronoun 'he,' 'that man,' has assumed different forms in all Dravidian languages, and how the termination of the third person singular of the verb agrees with it. The pronominal suffix can, in this way, be reduced so as to become almost unrecognizable. Compare Telugu nīvu chēsinā-vu, thou didst. Here nīvu, thou, is a later form developed from an old $n\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{\imath}$. So strongly was the pronominal suffix felt to belong to the pronoun that it became necessary to change its form to vu in order to effect harmony in sound with the full pronoun though vu has nothing to do with the original form of the pronoun. In some cases, on the other hand, the pronominal suffix has become a mere suffix of inflexion, and it has been possible to change the full pronoun without necessitating a similar change in the suffix. A good instance is furnished by Gondi, where 'I' is nannā and 'thou' immā, while the corresponding suffixes have the older forms \bar{a} ($\bar{a}n$) and $\bar{\imath}$ ($\bar{\imath}n$), respectively.

The pronominal suffixes are not, however, necessary for the conjugation of Dravidian verbs, and they are very often dropped in common speech. In Malayāļam they are never used, but the tenses are replaced by participles without any distinction of person and number. Such participles are also in other dialects used as conjunctive participles. In Gōṇḍī we occasionally also find them employed in the same way as in Malayāļam. In High Tamil we find a similar state of affairs. Here forms such as śeydu, having done, can be used for all the persons of the past tense singular. In the plural an m is added; thus, śeydum, we, you, or they, did.

Such participles probably represent the oldest stage of development of the Dravidian verb, and they have long been recognized as the bases of the so-called tenses, *i.e.*, the compound nouns or nouns of agency used as such. Their number is not great, but it can be increased by using similar nouns formed from other participles. In this way Göndī has attained an apparent richness of conjugational forms which has puzzled the grammarians who have written about it.

Three tenses are commonly distinguished, an indefinite tense which is used as a present and often also as a future, a past tense, and a future.

The indefinite present is formed from a participle which usually contains a suffix d or t. Thus, Kanarese $m\bar{a}d$ - $utt\bar{a}$ -ne, he does; Kurukh es-d-an, I break; Kui $\bar{\imath}nu$ gi-d- $\bar{\imath}$, thou doest; Gōṇḍ̄i $nann\bar{a}$ $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$ -t- \bar{o} n- \bar{a} , I do; Telugu $n\bar{e}nu$ kottu-t- $unn\bar{a}nu$, I strike; $n\bar{e}nu$ kottu-d-unu, I would strike. In literary Telugu ch is substituted for the t of this tense; thus, $ch\bar{e}yuchunn\bar{a}nu$, I do. Now ch often seems to be derived from an older k. It seems therefore probable that such forms must be compared with Malayālam adikkunnu, he beats and so on. The whole tense is apparently formed by adding the verb substantive to a present participle. Compare Tamil $nadakkir\bar{e}n$, I walk, and kiri, I am, in the Kaikād̄i of Berar.

The past tense is formed from the conjunctive participle. The usual suffixes of that form are either an i or else a suffix which occurs in various forms. Tamil has ndu or ttu, vulgarly pronounced chchu; Kanarese has du; Kurukh k; Kui t; Göndi t; Telugu t; Brāhūi k. It seems to be most in accordance with Dravidian phonetical laws to derive all those forms from a ku-suffix. Its actual form in the original Dravidian language cannot, however, be ascertained.

The future is formed in various ways. The most common suffix seems to contain a v or \tilde{o} .

The Dravidian verb further forms verbal nouns, verbal and relative participles, an imperative, and so on.

On the other hand, there is no passive voice. In Gōṇḍī, it is true, some forms occur which look like an imitation of the passive in Indo-Aryan vernaculars, and Kurukh seems to have developed a regular passive. But on the whole the Dravidian languages are destitute of a passive voice.

There remains one peculiarity of the Dravidian verb which must be mentioned in this connexion, viz., the negative conjugation. It is usually restricted to one tense, verbal nouns with a negative particle being used when a different tense is to be indicated. In Malayālam, Tulu, Kui and some other dialects the negative verb has developed more than one tense, and in most languages we find a varied system of negative participles and verbal nouns. The principle of the formation of negative tenses is apparently the addition of ordinary personal suffixes to a negative base. The details will be found separately under the various dialects.

It is hoped that the preceding remarks have drawn attention to the principal characteristics of the Dravidian languages. The details will be found under the various languages and in the works mentioned under authorities. Bishop Caldwell's comparative grammaris the standard work on Dravidian philology. It has been consulted, and largely drawn upon throughout the preceding inquiry, and it should be studied by everyone who aims at a deeper knowledge of the Dravidian family or of the various languages belonging to it.

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TAMIL.

Tamil is spoken by about 17 millions of people. In the territory included within the operations of the Linguistic Survey it is only spoken, as a foreign language, by settlers from the south. We cannot, therefore, here deal with it in the same way as in the case of the languages of Northern India. Tamil is, on the other hand, so important a language that it has been found necessary to give a rapid sketch of it, without aiming at completeness or fullness of detail.

The name of the language should properly be written Tamir. The consonant r being often interchangeable with l, the word is often pro-Name of the Language. nounced Tamil in the Tamil country. In the old Pali of the Mahāvamsō the Tamils are called Damila. The same form is also used in the Canon of the Svētambara Jains. The forms Davila and Davida in the Prakrit literature of the Jains and of the Sanskrit plays seems to be a later stage, due to the Prakrit change of m to v. The oldest texts have Damila. Damila and Davida were Sanskritized to Dramila, Dramida, and Dravida, respectively. Varahamihira (sixth century A.D.) probably used the form Dramida, though the printed editions of his Brihatsamhitā read According to Professor Kern some manuscripts read Dramida, and this form must evidently be adopted, considering the fact that Dravida is the usual form in Sanskrit which would not be likely to be changed to the less known Dramida. Tārānātha, in his history of Buddhism in India, mentions the Dramilas, and his sources must, therefore, have exhibited that form. 'Dramila' also occurs in old Malayalam versions of the Puranas, and in inscriptions, such as the pillar inscription of King Mangalesa, from Mahākūta near Bādāmī (597-608). Classical authors know the word under forms such as Damirice, Dimirica, and perhaps Λυμιρίκη (Ptolemy). Dramida was again borrowed by Tamil under the form Tiramida.

The form Tamul is due to the French missionaries and should be disregarded.

No plausible explanation of the word has as yet been given. Bishop Caldwell thinks Dravida to be the original form. This is not, however, probable, Damila being the form the word assumes in the oldest Aryan literature. Adelung compared Tamil with the name of the river Tāmraparnī. The native Tamil scholars state that Tamil means 'sweetness' or 'fragrance.' If Tamir is the original form of the word, it would perhaps be allowable to consider ir as a suffix and compare the base tam with the reflexive pronoun. Compare the German name Schwaben, lit. 'own country.'

The language is also known under other names. The Telugus and Kanarese call it Aravam, the Kanarese also Tigalar or Tigular. The old Portuguese, who did not distinguish between Tamil and Malayalam, called both the Malabar language, and Tamil was long known under that name in Europe.

I may add that various parts of the Tamil country were known to the Aryan Indians at an early period under names such as Pāṇḍya, Chōḍa or Chōla, Chēra, and so forth.

Tamil is spoken all over the south-eastern part of the Indian Peninsula and the northern half of Ceylon. On the peninsula its eastern frontier is the Bay of Bengal and towards the west it extends to the Western Ghats. It is the prevailing language south and east of a line drawn from the sea a few miles north of Madras through Chingleput and North Arcot, leaving the smaller, northern half of that latter district to Telugu. The line thence runs through

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the north-western corner of Salem, where Tamil meets with Kanarese, to the Nilgiri and the Western Ghats, and thence southwards, leaving Malabar, Cochin, and the greatest part of Travancore to Malayālam. Tamil is spoken in the last mentioned state on the western side of the Ghats, from Cape Comorin to the neighbourhood of Trivandrum.

Tamil is bounded to the north by Telugu, to the west by Kanarese and Malayalam, Linguistic Boundaries. and to the south and east by the sea.

Tamil settlers have, in early times, brought the language to Ceylon; they are found everywhere in the Dekhan, and form the majority of the so-called Klings in Further India and the Malay Archipelago. We find them as coolies in Mauritius and the West Indies, and so on. 'In short,' says Bishop Caldwell, 'wherever money is to be made, wherever a more apathetic or a more aristocratic people is waiting to be pushed aside, thither swarm the Tamilians, the Greek or Scotch of the East, the least superstitious and the most enterprising and persevering race of Hindus.

Malayāļam was in old times considered as a form of Tamil. It is, however, now universally admitted to be a distinct language, and it will, therefore, be separately dealt with. Tamil itself is, by no means, uniform over the whole area where it is spoken as a vernacular. We are here only concerned with the colloquial language, the so-called Kodun-Damir and can therefore only mention the fact that the classical language of Tamil literature, the so-called Sen-Damir, differs widely from the modern form of speech.

There are many distinct provincial dialects of Tamil. We do not, however, know much about them. Three dialects only were distinguished at the Census of 1891, Yerukala or Korava, spoken by a wandering tribe; Irula, a caste dialect in the Nilgiris and adjoining districts; and Kasuva, the dialect of a jungle tribe between the base of the Nilgiris and the Moyar River. Yerukala or Korava is also spoken in the Bombay Presidency, and a short account of that dialect will therefore be found below on pp. 318 and ff. Two other dialects spoken by vagrant Gipsy tribes, the so-called Kaikāḍī, and Burgaṇḍī will be added.

According to the returns of the Censuses of 1891 and 1901, the number of speakers of Tamil in those districts where it is spoken as a vernacular

			we	re a	s follows:	_		
Madras Presidency	y				_			
					Census, 1891.		Census, 1901.	
Madras	•				270,970		318,993	
Chingleput					863,094		965,388	
North Arcot					1,214,930		1,242,429	
Salem .					1,395,130		1,560,102	
Coimbatore					1,297,174		1,442,804	
Nilgiri .					28,038		39,121	
South Arcot					1,882,159		2,063,343	
Tanjore				٠.	2,095,135		2,118,667	
Trichinopoly					1,157,689		1,219,782	
Madura					2,081,102		2,258,359	
Tinnevelly					1,627,915	*	1,770,125	
Travancore					448,322		492,273	
Cochin .					44,777	•	54,171	0.7
Pudukkottai		•	•		353,770		360,362	
Total Made	ras I	Preside	nev			14,760,205		15,905,919
Ceylon	•	• .	•		• . •	9: 0,844		951,740
		GRAND TOTAL				15,711,049		16,857,659

The figures from Ceylon are those given for the Tamil race in the island at the Censuses of 1891 and 1901.

Outside the territory where Tamil is spoken as a vernacular the number of speakers returned were as follows:—

Madras Pres	sidency	_			α.							
						1891.					Census, 1901.	
Ganjan		•	•	•		701					1,372	
Vizaga		•	•	•		479					2,303	
Godava		•	•	•		525					4,046	
Kistna		•			2,	695					3,741	
Nellore					- 26,	984					38,430	
Cuddap					6,	262					4,939	
Kurnoo					2,	074					1,350	
Bellary					11,	792					11,747	
Ananta	pur				2,	411					4,716	
Malaba	r				106,	399		•			109,893	
South (Canara					150					1,096	
Ganjan	Agen	cv			-,	3					3	
Vizaga			1CV			14					58	
Godava						164					147	
Bangan						17					18	
Sandur		•	•	·		24					49	
Sandur		•	•	•	-	24					49	
	tal Ma	dras			٠.	•		163,6	94			183,908
Ajmer-Merv		•	•	•	5	•						29
Andamans a		obar	8					•••				851
Assam .	•		•	•								2,497
Beluchistan								••				49
Bengal Pres	idency											2,274
Berar .												459
Bombay Pre	sidenc	y						•••				9,909
Burma								71,40)1			99,576
Central Pro	vinces							4,2				6,277
Coorg			- 0	- 0		•		19,0				5,189
North-West	Fronti	er	•	•	:	•			20			589
Punjab				•	•	•		•••				145
United Prov	rinces	•	•	•	•	•		•••				
Baroda	ILICES	•	•	•	•	•						766
Central Indi		•	•	•	•	•		•••				85
	124	•	•	•	•	•						1,130
Hyderabad	•	•	•	•	•	•		29,2	66			27,514
Kashmir	•	•	•	•	•	•						392
Mysore	•			•				159,3	92			226,472
Rajputana	•	•	٠	•	•	•			_			61
				T	OTAL			447,0	51			568,172
ml - 6	e 41			m					_			
The figures:	TOP EII	e m	unor	Tan	111 d1	alects	are	as to	шо₩		nsus, 1891.	Census, 1901.
Korava						-		-			55,116	52,626
Irula .				ē	-		•	•	•	•	1,614	932
Kasuva		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	316	241
Kaikādī		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	8,289	
Burgandi	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	265	14,598
True Contries	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	200	673
								To	TAL	•	65,600	69,070
										0.5		-

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By adding the figures given above we arrive at the following estimate of the number of speakers of Tamil in India and in Ceylon:—

						To	TAL		16,223,700	17,494,901
Tamil dialects	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	65,600	69,070
Tamil spoken abro	oad by		•		•		•	•	447,051	568,172
Tamil spoken at h	ome by								15,711,049	16,857,659
-									Census, 1891.	Census, 1901.

Of these totals, 950,844 and 951,740, respectively, were enumerated in Ceylon. The number of speakers of Tamil in the Indian peninsula were, therefore, 15,272,856 in 1891 and 16,543,161 in 1901.

Tamil was the first Dravidian language to develop a literature of its own. It would be out of place here to give an account of Tamil literature.

Suffice it to note that native tradition refers the commencement terary activity in the Tamil country to Agastya, the mythical apostle of the Dekhan.

of literary activity in the Tamil country to Agastya, the mythical apostle of the Dekhan. The oldest Tamil grammar, the so-called *Tolkāppiyam*, is ascribed to one of his pupils. Its age has not as yet been finally settled. It includes quotations from older authors and contains several poetical excerpts which show that Tamil had already a literary history of its own. The beginning of Tamil literature proper seems to be due to the labours of the Jains. It is relatively independent of Sanskrit, and has attained to a high degree of perfection, especially in the numerous ethical apothegms. The *Kural* of Tiruvalluvar, *i.e.*, the sacred Valluvan or Pariya priest, which teaches the Sāmkhya Philosophy in 1330 poetical aphorisms, is considered as one of the gems of Tamil literature. The author is said to have been a Pariah, and he cannot, according to Bishop Caldwell, be placed later than the 10th century. His sister, called Auveiyār, 'the venerable matron,' is one of the most highly admired Tamil poets.

Another great ethical poem, the Nāladiyār, is perhaps still older.

We shall further mention the romantic epics *Chintāmani*, by an unknown Jaina poet; the *Rāmāyaṇa* by Kambar; the old dictionary *Divākaram*; the classical Tamil grammar or *Nannūl* of Pavaṇanti, and so forth.

For further information the student is referred to the authorities mentioned below.

The art of printing¹ was introduced into India by the Goa Jesuits about the middle of the 16th century. A seminary and church dedicated to St. Thomas seem to have been built by the Jesuits at Ambalacatta, now a small village inland from Cranganore, and a few miles to the north of Angamali.

'Sanskrit, Tamil, Malayālam, and Syriac were studied by the Portuguese Jesuits residing there with great success, and several important works were printed, of which, however, we have only the names left us, as recorded by F. de Souza and others, and still later by Fr. Paulinus. The last tells us that—"Anno 1679 in oppido Ambalacātta in lignum incisi alii characteres Tamulici per Ignatium Aichamoni indigenam Malabarensem, iisque in lucem prodiit opus inscriptum: Vocabulario Tamuelco com a significação Portugueza composto pello P. Antem de Proença da Comp de Jesu, Miss: de Maduré." The first Malabar-Tamil types had been cut by a lay brother of the Jesuits, Joannes Gonsalves, at Cochin, in 1577. Ambalacātta was destroyed by order of Tipu, when his army invaded Cochin and Travancore.'

According to Bishop Caldwell, 'the title of the book printed in 1577 was the Doctrina Christiana which was followed the next year by a book entitled the Flos

¹ The remarks on the art of printing in India have been taken from a paper contributed by the late Dr. Burnell to Trübner's Record for the 31st O tober, 1872, as quoted by Bishop Caldwell,—A Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages. 2nd Edition. London, 1875, Grammar pp. 14 and ff.

Sanctorum.' This statement was originally made by Fr. Paulinus. The Doctrina Christiana is probably identical with the work mentioned below as printed in 1579.

From the beginning of the eighteenth century many works in Tamil were printed by the Danish missionaries at Tranquebar.

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Dictionaries were published in 1679 (see above) and in 1776 and 1786. A Dictionarium Tamulicum by Bartholomæus Ziegenbalg, of the year 1712, was perhaps only a manuscript.

The New Testament was translated into Tamil by B. Ziegenbalg and Johann Ernst Gründler and printed at Tranquebar 1714, and reprinted in 1722. The whole Bible, translated by Ziegenbalg and Benjamin Schulze, appeared at Tranquebar, 1723. Other works were printed in Ceylon, thus Sestien Predication overgeset in de Tamulsche Taal door Philippus de Vriest, Colombo, 1747. The publications of the Danish mission at Tranquebar are more fully enumerated in the reports of the mission, Vol. V, p. 1524. A similar bibliography of works printed in Ceylon is found on p. 230 of the second volume of C. P. Thunberg, Travels in Europe, Africa and Asia, made between the years 1770 and 1779, printed in 1799.

In comparison with this literary activity in India and Ceylon the scraps of information about Tamil with which scholars in Europe worked were of small importance. Tamil versions of the Lord's Prayer were published by Chamberlayne in 1715 and by Hervas in 1787. An account of the old literature dealing with Tamil is given by Adelung in his *Mithridates*, Berlin, 1806.

The Serampore missionaries issued a new translation of the New Testament in 1812. The whole Bible appeared, Jaffna, 1822.

For further references, see Col. Yule's Hobson-Jobson, sub voce Malabar, and the list of authorities printed below.

Most of the works mentioned above have been included in the list which follows. It only registers a part of the voluminous literature about Tamil. No attempt has been made to make it complete.

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The oldest Tamil inscriptions are written in an alphabet which differs from that in use at the present day. We are here only concerned with the latter, which consists of the following signs:—

Vowels.

$$\mathcal{A}$$
 a, \mathcal{A} ā, \mathcal{A} i, \mathcal{A} or \mathcal{A} i, \mathcal{A} is a constant \mathcal{A} or \mathcal{A} in $\mathcal{A$

CONSONANTS.

The Tamil alphabet is also used for writing Sanskrit. Separate signs for the Sanskrit sounds wanting in true Tamil are then added and this, fuller, alphabet is known as Grantha. Some of the additional signs are commonly used in ordinary Tamil, in words borrowed from foreign languages. They are,—

The forms of the vowels given above are those used as initials. As in other connected alphabets the vowels have each also a secondary form, used when it is preceded by a consonant. The various forms of the vowels in such positions are exhibited in the table which follows. The short a must, as usual, be pronounced after a consonant when it is not combined with any other vowel.

தள வய	Geer kan	Gren chau	is.	OLor tau	சென்ன ந்க	Spen tau	நென யூவ	பெள pan	மென mau	பென அவ	Gren ran	Soom lan	வைன மய	nni wan	Genen jau	தைய நக	© न्य ना <u>ग्र</u> थ
٠ <u>٥</u>	கோ 100	Gen chō	9	GL # 10	ஓவ் வூ	தோ ம்	கோ ம்	Gur pō	மோ ஸ்	யோ தம்	Gr 110	லோ 10	வோ ம்	சோ ரம்	னோ 10	G@ 1.0	ලම තුට
o &	Gen ko	Ger cho	தொ ஜ்	OL # 10	où wo	தொ to	கொ ம	QUI po	மொ mo	Qur yo	சொ ர0	வை 10	வொ மே	ும் பரி	வெளா 10	0.1 DO	<i>00</i> 00 00
	ma kei	™ chei		on tei	gan nei	en∌ tei	கை nei	en∪ pei	on mei	பை yei	on rei	& lei	ma vei	eng rei	tor lei	en prei	30 nei
9	Ga kē	Gr che		GL 10	ேண ந்	G# 46	Gr në	G⊔ pē	Gu mē	யே முē	G1 rē	Go 1ē	வே மē	மே ரச்	Gen 10	Gp re	னே ஐ
9 6	Os ke	OF che	O B ñe	OL te	இண ந்	Op te	On ne	Ou pe	On me	Ou ye	Or re	On 10	ിയ ഉ	oh he	Ger le	Op re	னை ஐச
en i	on kū	& chū		ē tā	ņù is	क्रा ध्य	நா யூ	nd A	w mū	yū	கு சம்	ன 14	e rū	ņ.i H	ese lū	ு ஆ	ம் ம்
<i>w</i>	& ku	ъ chu		o tu	nù res	es tu	nu O	nd h	nui D	nh h	a ru	m la	na ho	ni H	nj so	n.ï	nū (©
F	24 B	& chī		24ं व	in see	12 12	18 nz	id D	าร พร	2k 511	F 7.	21 D	50 B	i.i A	શું મુછ	2.i. &	$v_{\bar{\nu}}$
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	B 16:	A chi		\$\$ to	east ni	e ti	in B	id 67	in mi	ig yi	A 9.	57 Bo	in he	ii on	en li	13. Co	ंग ए
\$ \$	का हेव	er chā	தொ ที่ส	L" tā	ை ற்	क्रम ध्व	கா nā	பா pā	மா mā	யா ருக்	மா ரம்	ை 1 மீ	வா மக்	மா ரம்	னா jā	@ rā	© <u>nā</u>
a a	s lea	+ cha	D ña	L ta	ல் மூ	s ta	B 22	n ba	wa ma	e ya	P. 9.0	es la	on na	is in	வ ந்க	p.i. s	थ्य ग्रंथ

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If a consonant is not followed by any vowel, a dot is added at the top of it. Thus, so with Crist veikkirën, I put.

The letter π ra is usually written π when no ambiguity can arise, the latter sign being the secondary form of the long \bar{a} .

The numerals are denoted as follows:-

This short u has only about half the length of an ordinary short vowel. In words consisting of two short syllables a v is inserted after it before a following vowel. Thus, $pa\delta u - v - il$, in the cow. In other words the short u is dropped before a following vowel. Thus, $k\bar{a}du$, ear; $k\bar{a}d-il$, in the ear.

Initial e and \bar{e} are pronounced as ye, $y\bar{e}$, respectively. In the same way initial i and \bar{i} are sometimes pronounced as yi and $y\bar{i}$ respectively.

The diphthong ei is pronounced as ei when it occurs in the first syllable of a word. In other cases it has the sound of \bar{e} with a slight tinge of i added.

Au is often pronounced and written avu.

It will be seen that the Tamil alphabet has no separate signs for soft mute consonants. The hard mutes are, however, regularly softened in certain positions, and they are then usually transliterated as soft consonants.

K, t, and p are always hard at the beginning of words, and when they are doubled or immediately followed by another consonant. They are, on the other hand, pronounced as g, d, d (commonly pronounced as th in English 'that') and b, respectively, in the middle of a word, when they are not doubled.

The hard sounds are also used after t and r, while the soft pronunciation prevails in combination with nasals. Thus, vetkam, bashfulness; but $ang\bar{e}$, there; $tingir\bar{e}n$, I am eating.

The pronunciation of the palatal mute varies in the different parts of the country. When single, it is sometimes pronounced as \acute{s} and sometimes as \emph{s} . When doubled, or preceded by \acute{t} or \emph{r} , it is pronounced as a palatal \emph{ch} . After $\~{n}$ it is usually pronounced as a soft palatal \emph{j} . Thus, $\emph{pa\acute{s}u}$, a cow; $\emph{ichchei}$, a wish; $\emph{sā\acute{t}chi}$, a witness; $\emph{muyarchi}$, an effort; $\emph{a\~nju}$, reverence.

Initial mutes are sometimes pronounced as soft consonants in the beginning of borrowed words. Thus, guru, a teacher; janam, people; dēvan, god; bayam, fear.

There are no aspirates. A soft aspiration is, however, often locally combined with the soft pronunciation.

Single consonants are often doubled.

A final consonant of a monosyllabic word containing a short vowel is doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel. Thus, kal, a stone; kall-il, in a stone.

An initial k, k, t or p is, in some cases, doubled after a word ending in a vowel.

1. After a(nda), that; i(nda), this; e(nda), which? Thus, appadi, in that way; appadi, in this way; appadi, in which way?

- 2. In compound words, when the first part of the compound is governed by the second. Thus, kotta-ppadu, to be beaten; pakkattu-chchuvar, a side-walk.
 - 3. After the adverbial suffixes ay and aga.
 - 4. After a dative or accusative.
 - 5. After an infinitive ending in a.
 - L and \underline{n} are semi-cerebrals, like English l and n.

The cerebral r is vulgarly pronounced as a y. It has often been transliterated as zh in old books and is so pronounced in Pondicherry, Karikal, and Tanjore. The tongue is curled back to the position it has in pronouncing t but does not touch the palate.

The letter r is a palatal r sound. It is theoretically rougher than r, but practically little difference is made between both sounds. Double rr is pronounced as English tt. An r immediately followed by another consonant is pronunced t or r; thus, adarku, thereto, is pronounced adatku or adarku. The combination nr is pronounced ndr; thus, enru, pronounced endru, having said.

L and r cannot be pronounced as initials, but must always be preceded by an i, or, in case the following vowel is u, \bar{u} , o, or \bar{o} , by an u. Thus, irandu, two; $ur\bar{u}bam$, form.

Final \underline{n} and l become \underline{r} , and final \underline{n} and \underline{l} become \underline{t} when the following word begins with k, \underline{s} , t, or \underline{p} .

Most of the preceding notes have been taken from Mr. Arden's grammar, mentioned under authorities above. When they are borne in mind it is hoped that the short grammatical sketch which follows will enable the reader to understand the forms occurring in the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which is printed on pp. 312 and ff. It has been taken from the text published by the Madras Auxiliary Bible Society in 1889. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, hailing from Poona, will be found on pp. 648 and ff.

I.-NOUNS.

Gender.-Men and gods are masculine; women and goddesses feminine; other nouns neuter.

Number.—Masculine bases ending in an form their plural in ar or argal. Respectful denominations ending in $\bar{a}r$ add $m\bar{a}r$ or $m\bar{a}rgal$. The plural of other nouns is formed by adding gal, or, if the noun ends in a long vowel or consists of two short syllables ending in a, kkal. The plural is inflected as the singular, case suffixes being added directly to ar, al, etc.

	Bases in an.	Bases in am.	Bases in du, ru, not consisting of two short syllables.	Other bases.	
Sing. Nom.	manidan, a man.	maram, a tree.	vidu, a house.	naḍu, middle.	
Acc.	manidanei.	marattei.	vīṭṭei.	naduvei.	
Instr.	maņidaņāl.	marattāl.	vīţţāl.	$naduv\bar{a}l.$	
Dat.	manidanukku.	marattukku.	vīţţukku.	naduvukku.	
Gen.	manidanudeiya (manidanin.)	marattin(-udeiya).	vīṭṭiṇ(-uḍeiya).	naduvin(-udeiya).	The particle in may be inserted before case suffixes.
Loc.	manidanil.	marattil.	vīţţil.	naduvil.	In the vocative an \bar{e} is added to the
Plur.	manidur(-gal).	marangaļ.	vīdugaļ.	nadukkal.	base.

II.-PRONOUNS.

	First person, I. nāņ. enņei. enakku. eņ. nām, nāṅgaļ nammei, eṅgaļei. namakku, eṅgaļukku.	SECOND	PERSON.	THIRD PERSON.						
	First person, 1.	Thou.	Honorific.	He.	She.	It.				
Sing. Nom.	nāņ.	nī.	nīr.	avan.	aval.	adu.				
Acc.	ennei.	unnei.	ummei.	avanei.	avaļei.	ad(an)ei.				
Dat.	epakku.	unakku.	umakku.	avanukku.	avaļukku.	adarku, adirku, adukku.				
Gen.	ер.	up.	um.	avan.	avaļ.	adan, adin.				
Plur. Nom.	nām, nāṅgaļ	$n\bar{i}ng$	aļ.	avar(gaļ).	avei(gal).				
Acc.	nammei, engaļei.	unga	ılei.	avar(g	aveigaļei, avarrei.					
Dat.	namakku, engaļukku.	ungali	ıkku.	avar(ga	ļ)ukku.	aveigalukku, avarrukku.				
Gen.	nam, engaļ.	$u\dot{n}g$	aļ.	. avar	aveigaļ, avarrin.					

Nām, we, includes, and nāngaļ excludes the person addressed. Avar, they, is used as an honorific singular. The suffix adeiya is commonly added in the genitive; thus, ensudeiya, my.

 $T\bar{a}_{B}$, self, gen. ta_{B} , plur. $t\bar{a}m$ and $t\bar{a}n\bar{g}al$, as $n\bar{a}y$. As avay, he, also ivay, this; evay, who? Ar or $y\bar{a}r$, who? as avar, he (honorific). Eyyam, what? is a nour, and inflected like maram, a tree. Eyya, what, is both a noun and an adjective. It is indeclinable.

Pronominal adjectives a(nda), that; i(nda), this; e(nda), which? etc., are indeclinable.

GRAMMAR.

III .- VERBS.

Suffixes of principal parts.

Personal terminations.

Present.	Past.	Future.	1	1	2	3 masc. 3 fem.	3 u.
giru	ndu, iņu	vu, bu.	Sing.	ēņ	$\bar{a}y$, ir	ān āļ	adu.
kkiru	ttu	ppu-	Plur.	ōm	īrgaļ	ār, ārgaļ	ana.

The final u of the tense suffixes is dropped before the personal terminations; thus, adeiv-ēn, I shall get. Inu with adu becomes inadu, iyadu, or irru. The third person neut. future is formed by adding um to bases which form the future in vu and kkum to such as add ppu; thus, adeiyum, it will get. An n is inserted before the g of the suffix of the present in the third person plural neuter.

A.—Regular Verbs.—

Padi, learn ; ōdu, run.

Infinitivo, padikka, ōda.

Verbal Nouns, padikkal, padittal, padikkei; ödal, ödudal, ödugei. Negative, padiyamei, ödamei.

Relative participles.—Present, padikkira, odugira. Past, paditta, odina (odiya). Future, padikkum, ōdum. Negative, padiyāda, ōdāda.

Conjunctive participle, padittu, ōḍi. Negative, padiyāmal, ōḍāmal.

Present tense, padikkigēņ, ōḍugirēņ. Negative, padikkigad-illei, ōḍugirad-illei.

Past tense, padittēn, odinēn. Negative, padittal-illei, odudal-illei.

Future, padippēn, oduvēn. Negative, padikka-māttēn, oda-māttēn.

Imperative, padi, padiyum (honorific), padiyungal (plural); ödu, ödum, ödungal. Negative, padiyade, etc. ōdādē, etc.

Negative tense, padiyēņ, ōdēņ; 3rd pers. neut. padiyā, ōdā, singular also padiyādu, ōdādu.

B.-Irregular Verbs.-

Several verbs take a contracted form in the past. Bases ending in n and l add ntu, and those ending in l and n add nru in the past. Thus, ungiren, I eat; unten, I ate; engiren, I say; enren, I said.

Other contracted forms are itten, I gave, pres. idugiren; patten, I suffered; pres. padugiren; urren, I existed, pres. urugirën ; nakkën, I laughed, pres. nagugirën ; sonnën, I said, pres. sollugirën, etc.

Several common verbs are irregular. Thus,-

Infinitive.	Conj. part.	Present.	Past.	Future.	Imperative.
$ar{a}ga$, become	āy	$ar{a}(gu)girar{e}v$	$ar{a}(gi)_{ar{u}ar{e}ar{u}}$	$ar{a}(gu)var{e}y$	ā.
iya, give	$\bar{i}ndu$	<i>īgi</i> ŗē <u>n</u>	īndēņ	ivēņ	ī.
tara, give	tandu	tarugirēn	tandē <u>n</u>	taruvēn	$t\bar{a}(rum)$.
pōga, go	$p\bar{o}y$	pōgiŗēn	pōṇēṇ	pō(gu)vēņ	$p\bar{o}(m)$.
vara, come	vandu	varugi <u>r</u> ēņ	vandēņ	varuvēņ	vā (rum).
<i>§āga</i> , die	Settu	\$āgirēn	Settēp.	\$ā(gu)vēņ	sā(vum).

C .- Auxiliaries .-

Vēndum, it is wanted; negative vēndām; kūdum, it is possible, it is proper; negative kūdādu; tagum, it is fit; negative tagādu; attum, let, are added to the infinitive. Thus, nī angē pōga-vēndām, you snould not go there; avan varattum, let him come. $\bar{A}m$, negative $\bar{a}du$ is added to the verbal noun ending in al and denotes permission. Thus, $ni\ p\bar{o}gal-\bar{a}m$, you may go. A kind of conditional mood is formed by adding all to the past relative participle or il to the infinitive. Thus, padittāl, if you learn; seyyil, if you do. Illei is 'does not exist'; alla is the negative copula or verb substantive.

Passive voice—Formed by adding the verb padu, suffer, to the infinitive; thus, adikka-ppadugirēu, I am beaten. Reflexive Verbs-Formed by adding kol, take, to the conjunctive participle. Thus, parttu-kkolla, to look out for oneself, to beware,

Causatives-Formed by adding ikkiru, past ittu, future ippu to the future base and conjugating throughout; thus, seyvikkigēn, I cause to do. From padu, suffer, is formed paduttugigēn, past paduttinēn; from odu, run, ēttu, and so

Particles.— \bar{E} adds emphasis; \bar{a} denotes a question; \bar{b} a doubt, a contrast, or indefiniteness; um, completeness, etc. Um added to the conjunctive participle means 'although'. Thus, irund-um, although he is.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

ஒ**ரு மனுஷ**னுக்கு இரண்டு குமாரர் இருந்தார்கள்.—அவர்களில் இஃாயவன் தகப்பின கோக்கி, தகப்பனே, ஆஸ்தியில் எனக்கு வரும் பங்கை எனக்குத்தரவேண்டும் என்முன். அந்தப்படி அவன் அவர்களுக்குத்தன் ஆஸ்தியைப்பங்கிட்டுக்கொடுத்தான்.—சிலநாளக்குப்-பின்பு, இளேய மகன் எல்லாவற்றையும் சேர்த்துக்கொண்டு, தூரதேசத்துக்குப்புறப்பட்டுப்-போய், அங்கே துன்மார்க்கமாய் ஜீவனம்பண்ணி, தன் ஆஸ்தியை அழித்துப்போட்டான்.— எல்லாவற்றையும் அவன் செலவழித்தபின்பு, அந்த தேசத்திலே கொடிய பஞ்சமுண்டா– யிற்று. அப்பொழுது அவன் குறைவுபடத்தொடங்கி, அந்ததேசத்துக் குடிகளில் ஒருவ-னிடத்தில் போய் ஒட்டிக்கொண்டான். அந்தக்குடியானவன் அவனேத்தன் வயல்களில் பன்– றிகளே மேய்க்கும்படி அனுப்பினன்.—அப்பொழுது பன்றிகள் தின்கிற தவிட்டினுலே தன் வயிற்றை கிரப்ப ஆசையாயிருந்தான், ஒருவனும் அதை அவனுக்குக்கொடுக்கவில்லே. அவ-னுக்குப் புத்து தெளிந்தபோது, அவன், என் தகப்பனுடைய கூலிக்காரர் எத்தனேயோபே-ருக்குப்பூறத்தியான சாப்பாடு இருக்கிறது, நானே பசியினல் சாகிறேன்.—நான் எழுந்து, என் தகப்பனிடத்திற்குப்போய், தகப்பனே, பரத்துக்கு வீரோதமாகவும் உமக்கு முன்பாக-வும் பாவஞ்செய்தேன்,—இனிமேல் உம்முடைய குமாரன் என்று சொல்லப்படுவதற்கு கான் பாத்திரனல்ல, உம்முடைய கூலிக்காரரில் ஒருவகை என்னே வைத்துக்கொள்ளும் என்பேன் என்ற சோல்வி, எழுக்து புறப்பட்டு, தன் தகப்பனிடத்தில் வக்தான். அவன் தூரத்தில் வரும்போதே, அவனுடையதகப்பன் அவணேக்கண்டு, மனதுருகி, ஓடி, அவன் கழுத்தைக்– கட்டிக்கொண்டு, அவணே முத்தஞ்செய்தான்.—குமாரன் தகப்பணே கோக்கி, தகப்பனே, பரத்-துக்கு வீரோதமாகவும், உமக்கு முன்பாகவும் பாவஞ்செய்தேன், இனிமேல் உம்முடைய குமாசன் என்று சொல்லப்படுவதற்கு நான் பாத்திரன் அல்ல என்று சொன்னன்.—அப்பொட ் முது தகப்பன் தன் ஊழியக்காரரை கோக்கி, நீங்கள் உயர்ந்த வஸ்திரத்தைக்கொண்டுவந்து, இ**வ**னுக்கு உடுத்**தி,** இவன் கைக்கு மோதிரத்தையும் கால்களுக்குப்பா*தரட்*சைகளேயும் போ-டுங்கள். நாம் புசுத்து, சக்தோஷமாயிருப்போம். என் குமாரதையெ இவன் மரித்தான், திரும்பவும் உயிர்த்தான் ; காணுமற்போனன் , திரும்பவும் காணப்பட்டான் என்றுன். அப்-படியே அவர்கள் சக்தோஷப்படத்தொடங்கினர்கள்.

அவனுடைய மூத்தகுமாரன் வயலிலிருந்தான். அவன் திரும்பி வீட்டுககுச்சமீபமாய் வருகிறபோது, தேவாத்தியத்தையும் நடனக்களிப்பையும் கேட்டு ஊழியக்காரரில் ஒருவணே அழைத்து, இதென்ன என்று வீசாரித்தான்.—அதற்கு அவன், உம்முடைய சகோதான் வந்தார், அவர் மறுபடியும் சுகத்துடனே உம்முடைய தகப்பனிடத்தில் வந்து சேர்ந்தபடியி—ூலே அவருக்காக விருந்துபண்ணிஞர் என்முன்.—அப்பொழுது அவன் கோபமடைந்து, உள்ளேபோக மனதில்லாதிருந்தான். தகப்பனே வெளியேவந்து, அவணே வருந்தியழைத்தான்.—அவன் தகப்பனுக்குப் பிரதியுத்தரமாக, இதோ, இத்தணேவருஷகாலமாய் நான் உமக்கு ஊழியஞ்செய்து, ஒருக்காலும் உம்முடைய கற்பணேயை மீருதிருந்தும், என் சிரேகித ரோடே நான் சந்தோஷமாயிருக்கும்படி நீர் ஒருக்காலும் எனக்கு ஒரு ஆட்டுக்குட்டியையாவது கொடுக்கவில்லே. வேசிகளிடத்தில் உம்முடைய ஆண்டுயைய அழித்துப்போட்ட உம்முடைய குமாரஞ்கிய இவன் வந்தவுடனே இவனுக்காக விருந்துபண்ணினீரே என்முன்—அதற்குத் தகப்பண், மகனே, நீ எப்போதும் என்றேடிருக்கிருய், எனக்குள்ளதெல்லாம் உன்றுடையதாயிருக்கிறது. உன் சகோதரணுகிய இவனே மரித்தான், திரும்பவும் உயிர்த்தான்; காணுமற்போனுன், திரும்பவும் காணப்பட்டான். ஆனபடியூனை, நாம் சந்தோஷப்பட்டு மகிழ்ச்சியாயிருக்கவேண்டுமே என்று சொன்னன் என்றுர்.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Oru One	manushanukki man-to	iraņdu two					ileiyavan younger-the
tagappanei	nōkki.	'tagappan-	ė. āst	tivil	enakku	varum	nancei
the- $father$	addressing,	father-C), $prope$	erty- in	me- to	coming	share
enakku-tta me-to-to-giv	ra-vēṇḍum,' e-is-wanted,'						āstiyei- property-
657	koduttān. Šil						
having-divid	ded-gave. Fe	w day	ys-after	young	ger son	; ;;; ;;	all
śērttu-kko	ņķu d	ūra	dēśattu	ıkku-ppu	rappattu-p	pōy	angē
	ered dis			-		ng- $gone$	there
dunmār evil-way-ha	kkam-āy ving-become	jīvaṇam life-havin	-paṇṇi g-made	ta <u>n</u> <i>his</i>	āstiyei property	aŗi	ttu-ppōṭṭān. wasted.
Ellävarreiy	um avan	śelavaritta	pinbu	anda	dēśattilē	kodiya	a pañjam
All	he	spending			country-in	_	
	Apporudu		eivu		dangi		
					17 (2) (17)		of-country-
	alil oruva	* · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	- 0				cu ḍiyāṇavaṇ
inhabitants-	among one	with ha	ving- $gone$	joined- h	himself.	That-h	usbandman
	vayalgaļ-il:	panrigal	ei mēy			pinān.	Apporudu
him-his	fields- in	pigs	a a	to-fee d	80	ent.	Then
pangigal t	ingira tavi	țținăl-e t	an vayir	rei nira	ppa ā	śei-yāy-i	irundāņ,
$pigs$ ϵ	eating husk-	oith-even	his bell	y to-	fill wish	-having-	become-was,
oruvan-um	adei avanu	kku-kkoduk	kavillei.	Avanuk	ku-pputti	teli	nda-pōdu
one-even	that h	im-to-gave-n	ot.	Him-	to-sense	clear-bed	come-time-at
avan, 'er	ı tagappan	udeiya	kūlikkārar	ettar	geiyō p	ērukku-	ppūrtti-yāna
he, 'mg	y fathe	er's	servants	how-	many	men	-to-full
food		$egin{array}{c} ext{nar{a}} \ ext{\emph{\emph{I-on-the-}}} \end{array}$	n-ō other-hand	d hu	aśiyināl nger-with	$egin{array}{c} \dot{s} ar{a} ar{g} ar{i}_i \ dar{i}_i \end{array}$	rēn. Nān e. <i>I</i>
erundu.	en tagar						
	en, my fath						
	umakku m		pāvañ	-ievdēn ;	inim	ē1	
also	you-to b	efore-also	sin	I-did;	hereaf	ter	your
kumāran	enru	śolla-ppadu	vadarku	กลิก	nāttiran-al	la:	ummudeiya
son	having-said	to-be-ca	lled	I f_{i}	t-man-am-r	iot;	your
	10						2 s 2

külikkäraril oruvan-aga ennei veittu-kkollum." enbēn,' enru servants-among one-to-become me keep-for-yourself," will-say, having-said śolli, erundu pura-ppattu, tan tagappan-idattil vandān. having-uttered. having-arisen having-started, his father-to came. Avan dürattil varum pōdē avanudeiya tagappan avanei-kkandu manad-Hedistance-at coming when his father him-seeing hearturugi ōdi karuttei-kkatti-kkondu avan avanei muttañ-jeydan. Kumāran meltingrunning his neck-embracing him kiss-made. The-son tagappanei nōkki. 'tagappanē, parattukku virodam-agavum, umakku the-father addressing, father-O, heaven-to against-also, you-to munb-agavum pāvañ-jeydēn; inimēl ummudeiya kumāran enru before-also sin-I-did: hereafter your 30n having-said śolla-ppaduvadarku nān pāttiran-alla,' enru śonnan. tagappan Apporudu to-be-called I fit-man-am-not, saying said. Then the-father tan üriyakkārarei nōkki, 'ningal uyarnda vastirattei-kkonduvandu his addressing, servants 'you costly robe-having-brought ivanukku udutti, ivan keikku mōdirattei-yum kālgalukkuhim-to having-dressed, his hand-to ring-also legs-toppādaratcheigaļei-yum podungaļ. Nām puśittu, śandōsham-āy iruppom. shoes-also put. Wehaving-eaten, merry-having-become shall-be. En kumāran-āgiya ivan marittan, tirumbayum uyirttān; kāṇāmar-pōṇān, Myson-being this died, again became-alive; lost-went, tirumbavum kāņa-ppattān,' enrān. Appadiyē avargal śandosha-ppadaagain was-found, said. So they merry-to-bettodanginargal. began.

Avanudeiya mūtta kumaran vayalil irundān. Avan tirumbi vittukkuelder 80n field-in was. Heagain house-tochchamīpam-āy varugira-podu gīta-vāttiyattei-yum nadana-kkalippei-yum near-having-become coming-time-at music-also dancing-merriment-also kēttu, ūriyakkāraril oruvanei arcittu, 'id-enna?' enru viśārittān. hearing, servants-among one calling, 'this-what?' saying asked. Adarku avan, 'ummudeiya · śagodaran vandār, marubadiyum avar That-to he, 'your brother came, he again śugattudane ummudeiya tagappan-idattil śērnda-padiyinālē vandu safe your father-to having-come reached-because avarukk-āga virundu panninār,' enran. Apporudu avan kopam adeindu him-for feast he-made, he-said. Then he anger having-got manadillād-irundān. ullē poga Tagappan-ō veliyē vandu avanei to-go mind-without-was. The-father-but outhaving-come him varundiy-areittan. tagappanukku-ppiradiy-uttaram-aga, Avan 'idō, having-entreated-invited. Hethe-father-to-reply-as, · lo.

ittanei varusha-kālam-āy nān umakku ūriyañ-jeydu, orukkāl-um so-many years-time-being I you-to service-did, one-time-even ummudeiya karpaneiyei mīrād-irundum, en śinēgitar-ōdē nān command not-transgressing-being-though, your my friends-with I śandoshamay irukkumbadi nīr orukkāl-um enakku āttukkuttiyeiy-āvadu oru merry to-be you one-time-even me-to onekid-even kodukkav-illei. Vēsigal-idattil ummudeiya āstiyei arittu-ppōtta ummudeiya gave-not. Harlots-with your property having-wasted your kumāran-āgiya ivan vandav-udanē ivanukk-āga virundu panninīr-ē,' son-being thiscoming-immediately him-for feast made, enrān. Adarku tagappan, 'magan-ē, nī eppödum enn-od-irukkiray, said. That-to the-father, 'son-O, thou always me-with-art, enakk-ullad-ellam unnudeiyad-āy-irukkiradu. Un śagōdaran-āgiya ivan-ō me-to-being-all thine-having-become-is. Thybrother-being this-but marittan, tirumbavum uyirttān; kāņāmar-ponān, tirumbavum kāņa-ppattān. died, again came-alive; lost-went, again was-found. Ana-padiyinal-ē nām śandosha-ppattu magirchchiy-āy-irukka-vēndum-ē,' So merry-being we glad-having-become-to-be-is-wanted,' enru śonnan enrār. saying spoke said.

KORAVA OR YERUKALA.

The Koravas or Yerukalas are a wandering tribe of basket and mat-makers, pigbreeders, etc. They are found all over the Madras Presidency, and in several districts of the Bombay Presidency.

They call themselves Kora, Kurru, Korava, Koracha, and Kuluvaru in Mysore and Madras, and Yerukala seems to be the name given to them by the Telugu people. Their dialect has been returned as Körcharī and Korvī from Belgaum, as Korvāru from Bijapur, and as Korvī from Kolhapur and the Southern Marāṭhā Jaghirs.

I do not know anything about the origin of these names. Similar denominations are also used by connected tribes such as the Kodagas of Coorg and the Kurukhs of the Bengal Presidency.

Local estimates of the number of speakers in the Bombay Presidency have been made for the purposes of this Survey. The other figures which follow have been taken from the reports of the Censuses of 1891 and 1901:—

_			-				Ce	nsus of 1891.	Ce	nsus of 1901.
Bombay Presiden	cv.		_				-	13,041		2,490
Belgaum .				- 0			9,500	10,011	407	2,100
Bijapur .	·			•	·	•	3,231		225	
Dharwar .	- 1		Ċ	•	•	•			18	
Kanara .			•	•	,	•			39	
Satara Agen	ev .	•	•	•	•	•			1	
Kolhapur	oy .		•	•	•	•	250		413	
Southern Ma	· ·nā+hā	Tanhin		•	•	•	60			
Hyderabad .	паіна	agging	· .	•	•				1,387	0.001
Madras Presidence		•	•	•	•	•	•	07.01=		6,921
Ganjam .	у .	•	•	•		•		37,815	0.00	40,606
		•	•	•	•	•	371		360	
Vizagapatan Godavari .		•	•	•	•	•	1,118		1,464	
Kistna .	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,430		1,532	
Nellore .	•	•	•	•	•	•	9,900		12,629	
	,	•		•	•	•	3,229		3,602	
Cuddapah	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,989		5,598	
Kurnool .	•	•	•		•		4,428		5,280	
Bellary .							4,551	•	4,543	
Anantapur	•	•	•	. •	•		2,240		2,240	
Madras .		•	•		•	•	•••		269	
Chingleput		. •					422		117	
North Arcot		•					1,869		1,378	
Salem .							735		218	
Coimbatore							183		16	
South Arcot							715		878	
Tanjore .							48		14	
Trichinopoly							90		41	
Madura .							77		18	
Malabar .				•			7		8	
Vizagapatam	Agen	CV				•			32	
Godavari Ag	encv		Ť		•	•	134		80	
Pudukkottai		1	•	•	•	•	61			
Banganapalle		•	:	•	•	•	218		274	
Sandur .		•	-	•	•	•	210		15	
Coorg	•	•	•	•	•	•	•••	75	19	10
Mysore	•	•	•	•	•	•				18
	•	•	•	•	•	,		4,185		2,591
				To	IAL			55,116		52,626

Of the 9,500 speakers returned for the purposes of this Survey from Belgaum, 1,000 have been stated to speak Körcharī, and 8,500 Körvī. Some of the speakers returned from Bijapur are said to speak ordinary Tamil.

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Korava has sometimes been considered as a separate language. This is not, however, the case, though it is not derived from the colloquial Tamil of the present day. There are also several points in which the dialect differs from Tamil and agrees with other Dravidian languages. The whole structure is, however, almost the same as in Tamil, as will be seen from the materials printed below.

Specimens have been forwarded from Belgaum, the Jamkhandi State, and Bijapur. They all represent the same form of speech, with slight local variations, which closely agrees with the dialect described by Messrs. Macdonald and Cain. See Authorities, above. Consistency cannot, of course, be expected in the dialect of a tribe which wander over such a wide area and associate with people talking so many different languages. It would be out of place to give a full account of the dialect and its various forms. We can only draw attention to a few facts which may prove to be of interest for the history of the dialect.

Pronunciation.—Short final vowels are not distinctly sounded, and are often interchanged. Thus, tōpanke, tōpanki, tōpanka, and tōpank, to the father.

Final l is usually dropped. Thus, aga, they; but agal-ulli, among them.

Initial h is often dropped. Thus, $\bar{o}gi$ and $h\bar{o}gi$, having gone. The h in this word corresponds to p in Tamil. Kanarese has h.

Nouns.—The suffixes of the plural are ar(u), $m\bar{a}r(u)$, ga(lu), and nga. Thus, manasaru, men; $t\bar{o}p$ - $m\bar{a}r$, fathers; $\bar{a}vugalu$, fathers; $\bar{a}v\bar{a}nga$, cows; $m\bar{a}d\bar{a}nga$, bulls. The suffix nga is derived from ngal, and must be compared with Gondi ng.

The usual case suffixes are,-

Dative, ke, ka, k (compare Kanarese ki).

Ablative, inde, und, indri, inde (compare Kanarese inda, Tamil inru, pronounced indru).

Locative, ulli, olli, ol (compare Kanarese alli).

The dative is also used as an accusative. This latter case takes the suffixes e, an, nna and ni. The genitive is identical with the oblique base.

Examples of the various cases are, ambala mavunna kodibugudā, she gave birth to a male child; maun-ka, to the son; tōp-inde, from a father; Dēvara, God's; berastanāta, of the greatness; ārānyat-ulli, in the forest.

It will be seen that the case suffixes mainly agree with Kanarese. The plural, on the other hand, and the oblique form more closely agree with Tamil.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They are, broadly speaking, the same as in vulgar Tamil. 'One' is oru, neuter ond. Instead of oru we also find ort as in Kurukh.

Rand, two, corresponds to Malayāļam randu, Tamil irandu. Forms such as arasu, king, however, show that Korava has the same difficulty in pronouncing an initial r as Tamil. The masculine and feminine form of rand is rander.

Añja, five, corresponds to Malayālam and vulgar Tamil añju.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns,—

nā, nānu, I nan, me	nī, nīnu, thou nin, thee	$av\widetilde{u}, \widetilde{a}vu$, he; $ava(l)$, she. $avan$, him; $avalana$, her.
nanaka, to me	ninaka, to thee nina, thy	avanka, to him; avala-ka, to her. avan, his; avala, her.
nāga, we naṅgaḷa, our	nīga, you ningala, your	avga, āga, they. avgaļa, āgaļa, their.

There is only one form of the plural of the first person, just as is also the case in Kanarese. The oblique cases of the first person singular are also more closely related to Kanarese than to Tamil. $N\bar{a}ga$, we; $n\bar{i}ga$, you, on the other hand, must be compared with Tamil $n\bar{a}ngal$, we; $n\bar{i}ngal$, you; Coorgī nanga, we; ninga, you.

Verbs.—The present tense is formed as in Tamil. Compare $adik\bar{e}ri$, I strike; $h\bar{o}g\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, I go. The suffix $k\bar{e}r$, $g\bar{a}r$, is here clearly identical with Tamil kkira, gira. Forms such as adikire, I shall strike, still more closely agree with Tamil.

The past tense is formed by adding the suffixes sa and na, or, in most cases, in the same way as in Tamil. Thus, $a\dot{q}as\bar{a}$, thou struckest; $h\bar{o}n\bar{u}$, he went; $ku\dot{q}at\bar{u}$, he gave. The s-suffix must be compared with the suffix si, chi in Goṇḍī; $\acute{s}i$ in Telugu. Similar forms are also used in vulgar Tamil.

The personal terminations are,—

	Singu	lar.				Plural.		
1.	ē, i				1.	$ar{o}_{ullet}$.		
2.	\bar{a}				2.	$\bar{a}(ga)$.		
3.	\bar{u} ,	fem. \bar{a} ,	neut. du,	chu.		$\bar{a}(ga)$,	neut.	mū, mō

Thus, sāgārē, I die; śēndirā, thou hast made; igarū, he is; igadu, it is; varādu, it comes; kūḍatā, she gave; iñchamū, they (neuter) were; vañchu, it came, etc.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and the second a popular tale in the so-called Körcharī dialect of Belgaum. The third is the beginning of another version of the Parable in the so-called Korvī of the same district. Then follows a popular tale in the so-called Korvī of the Jamkhandi State, and, lastly, the deposition of a witness in the so-called Korvāru of Bijapur.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases in the so-called Korvī of Belgaum will be found below on pp. 646 and ff.

[No. 2.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KORAVA (SO-CALLED KÖRCHARĪ) DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

Edő-ör manasan-ka randēr āmļ-guņţeng inchamū. Avgal-tole A-certain man-to twomale-children were. Them-among younger gövälvű tan topan-ka sonnū, 'yāvā, nin jingōļ-iņde nan-ka varra his father-to said, father, your property-in-from me-to coming tā.' pang nan-ka Topu avgal-tole tan jingī pańchi-kudatū. give.' Father shareme-to them-among hishaving-divided-gave. property San mau tan pang akkondu dūr dēs-ka lāvu ōgi many Younger share having-taken a-far country-to having-gone nāl āgikillā, addantulle avũ lāvu kharts śēndu tan dayshad-not-been, meanwhile hemuchexpenditure having-done his allā kadtōtu. Avũ hināg ā jingī śēnd parsālē dēstole property allsquandered. Hehaving-done after80 thatcountry-in ber kharv bugad pyādastan avan-ka vanch. Avũ ā famine a-mighty having-fallen him-to He poverty came. that paņī-mēnē dēsa-nt manasa-n daute nindrū. Ā manasū avan-ka country-of man-of near work-on remained. That man him-to mēspikkirku matvāyi tan kolli-ki amśyōtū. Angē lāvu pestk swineto-feed field-to hissent. Theremuchhungry-being matvāvi tingir-antā pottu suddā tindru varag mettādsi-kondū. Ānākē swine eaten-that husks even having-eaten bellywas-filling. avan-ka ētar-daut-indē yandū śigakillā. Inagē ravatn dinang him-to anybody-near-from anything-even was-obtained-not. Thus a-few daysōsmō, parag vāti neppāgi tan manas-ulli soņņū, 'nan passed,his former state memory-becoming mind-in his said. 'my topan-kitak ikkirāvē eddanō pani-mandi-kī varag mettivechch father-near living how-many work-people-to belly having-filled moresōr sigañch. Ivate nan patnē sāgārē. Nán eddu nan food is-obtained. HereI hunger-with am-dying. Ι having-arisen mytopan-daute ōgi "topā, sonnē, nān dēvar pāp topan pāp father-near having-gone will-say, "father, I God-of sinfather-of sin

kati-kondirē. Nān nin . mauvand sondark bag-illā. Nan-ka have-got-tied-to-myself. to-be-called worthy-am-not. I your 80n-a8 Mepani-manasan śēndu nin-dauti vechchako."' Hinag sonni like work-man-of having-made of-you-near keep." having-said ang-inde eddu tan topan-daute varrappör tōpu dūrunde there-from having-arisen father=near hiscoming-while father distance-from avan-ka pātu dayā vandu ōdikit-ōgi kalebugadu him-to having-seen pity having-come running-having-gone having-embraced muddu kudatū. Appor mau tan āvan-ka sonnū, 'tōpā, nān dēvar a-kiss Then father, God-of the-son hisfather-to said, I nin munne munne tapp-sëndë. Nan $n\bar{i}$ nin mauvaņd akki-māņā.' It-ke before your before sin-did. Meyou your son-as call-do-not.' This-to tōpu tan paņi-mandi-ki soņņū, 'nal-nal battengā akkond-vandu nan maun-ka father work-men-to said, ' best clothes having-brought my battulle . mūdar ödgö, ōdgō, kālulle śarpanga ōdgō, mugasarka śego, finger-in feet-in put-on, a-ring put, shoes put, to-eat prepare, nāg undu santōs āgun. Yantk-andake, ī śattindū. nan mau we having-eaten happy let-us-become. Why-if-said, thismysonwas-dead, jīv-tōtī igarū; tapsikondu-ogindū, ippor śikkirū. tirgā Ī vātī kata again alivelost-gone-was, now is-found.' This news having-heard allārū santōs ānāgā. allhappybecame.

Ipporu avan ber kollöle mau indū. Avũ ũd-dautku vandappör Now hiselderfield-in son was. He house-near coming-when avan-ka pada-pādratā kundritā kat-kund-vandū. Avũ ā pani-mandy-ulle singing dancing to-be-heard-came. Hethatwork-men-in ortan-ka agasi, 'yand nadadid?' andu katū. At-ke avũ sonnū. having-called, 'what is-going-on?' saying inquired. one-to That-to he 'nin "avũ tembi vandirū; naltantlē vandu muttinnet-"andu ' thy brother "he is-come; safe-and-sound having-come has-reached-"saying topu ber sōr śendirū. Ita kata ber mau yarsm-āgi thy father a-big feast has-made. This having-heard elder son angry-becoming ullaka ōg-illā. Atk-osarē avan tōpu bēlikē vandu. 'ullaka vā,' 192 went-not. For-that-reason his father out having-come, · in come, andu avan-ka lāvu sonni-kondů. At-ke avũ tan topan-ke sonnu, 'nān saying him-to much entreated. That-to hehis father-to ·I ittan dankā nin vāţkāl pani śēndu eppörū nin vātu odik-illā. so-many years tillthyservice having-done ever thy wordbroke-not. Ānākēnū $n\bar{a}n$ nan genērn agasi-kondu ber sõr śairk-osarē However I my friends having-gathered-together a-big feastto-make-for nī nan-ku eppörü oru myāk-kutti $sudd\bar{a}$ kudat-illā. Ānākē basivēr thou me-to ever agoat-young even gavest-not. But harlots-of

sangatī bugad nin jingī-allā mulagyōt-antā ī nin mau company-in having-fallen thy property-all that-has-devoured t his thy ūd-ka sariginē nī avank-osare sõr śēndirā.' Topu maun-ku house-to coming as-soon-as thou him-for a-feast hast-made.' Father son-to sonnū, ' nī eppörū nan-dauti ikkyārā. Nan-dauți ikkird-allā nindē. `thousaid, alwaysof-me-near what-is-allart.My-near thine-alone. Satt nin tembi, tirgā jīv-tōţē igarū; tapasikondu-onāvū, sikknū, and Dead your brother, again aliveis; lost-went, is-found, saying nāg santōs āgardu sarige igadū.' wehappybecoming proper

[No. 3.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KORAVA (SO-CALLED KÖRCHARĪ) DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

A POPULAR STORY.

Purandar-gad andu sondrada uttar oru ūru dēstulli igadu. Purandargad calledvillagenorth 80 one country-in is. Ī ūrtulli rand-nür vāţkāl park oru penambran syāvkārastan This village-in two-hundred years agoone Brāhman banking śend-gondu lāvu kañjistan-inde indū. Avũ ravatnānā dān-dharm having-carried-on very miserly was. Hein-the-least charitable-acts śaiyyāk-illā. kañjistan udipikkirku-osarē Avan Krishnā miserliness to-cause-to-abandon-in-order performed-not. HisKrishnaakkondu ā syāvkār-dauti-ke penambra-na sõng pyād having-taken poor Brāhman-of disguise thatbanker-near dinā udyātle ōdigirk attindū. Avũ varandū. vandu to-beg having-come began. Hedaily in-the-morning was-coming. angandū. ' udvāl vā, nān imān panī-mēnē igarē. Syāvkār ' to-morrow I to-day business-on The-banker used-to-say, come, am. peņāmbrā Inagene oru vātkāl ā ūd-ka vandu ōgandū. that Brāhman house-to having-come year went. In-this-way one daņaj-goņdu ūtolli ikkird khotti At-mēnē svāvkār lāvu tan existing the-banker muchbeing-vexed hishouse-in falseThat-on 'ittōļē duddu-duggāņi dinā ā penāmbran sōrju, oru munne copper-coins Brāhman-of having-poured, this-in day thatbefore oneand sonnū. Atkosarē end bēkānādu ondu parikkondu ō,' said. wanted-being having-picked go, saying That-for whatever one ōgi ā katt peņāmbrā māţendu uttuttu partat Brāhman crafty having-refused having-left having-gone backyard thatkhulsī vandu, 'nan väslinde ā syāvkār dautke mauntad door-from that banker having-come, 'my wife-of near 80n-of tā, śaiyyārē, dān katū: muñji yandānā and āva thread-ceremony am-performing, charity asked; she some give, 80

yandū illā.' 'Nin 'nān pangēru, nan tāv mūkoļļātā sonnā, ' Your anything is-not.' ٠I possession-in nose-in-from said. woman. mypeņāmbrā varādu, sonni ā lāvu nat tā. dharm andu having-said that $Br\bar{a}hman$ much saying meritcomes, pearl-ring give, ' nan maņāgu lāvu syāvkār śēndū. Atkosarē āva, upadr husband a-great bankerbeing-though Therefore she, · my troubledid.chintillä, nānānākū dān Yandānākū śaiyyarnallā. dān-dharm performer-not. Whatever-being-though care-is-not, as-for-myself charity charity sonnikond-mate ā tilaja-gondu avũ tan-ka śaiyyārē, andu entreated-according-to having-thought-to-herself her-to thatperform, 80 Avũ appörē atnē kudtotā. mūkoļļyātā peṇāmbran-ka gave-away. Heforthwith thatBrāhman-to her nose-in-from ringsyāvkār-dauţi ī nattu vattē adē vandu akkondu thisthe-same banker-near nose-ring security having-taken having-come sonnū. Apporu, 'nan khulsītādu,' 'duddu tā, and vechch-kondu, Then, 'my wife's,' give, asked.having-deposited, 'money 80 śiks. andu identification was-made-out. saying

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

There is a village called Purandargad in the North country. About two-hundred years ago, there lived in this village a very miserly Brāhman who followed the profession of a money-lender. He performed no charitable acts whatever. With a view to cure him of this vice, Krishna appeared before the rich man for alms in the disguise of a poor Brāhman. When the Brāhman put in his appearance every morning, the rich man excused himself saying, 'come to-morrow, I am busy to-day.' The rich man was greatly vexed at the frequent visits of the Brahman for one full year, poured out, one day, before him all the counterfeit coins he had in his house and asked him to pick one out of them. Thereupon the cunning Brahman refused to accept the offer, and having made his way through the back door to the rich man's wife said, 'I intend performing the sacred thread ceremony of my son and beg of you to favour me with whatever little At this, she replied, 'I am a woman, nothing is in my possession.' 'Give me your nose-ring; this will bring you merit,' said the Brāhman pertinaciously. 'Though my husband is a great banker,' said she to herself, 'he never gives alms. I should not, however, mind it. As for myself, I am bent upon giving alms.' So she offered her nosering to the Brahman as desired. He, forthwith, came with it to the banker, offered it and asked him to lend money on the security of the ring, when the banker recognized it as his wife's property.

[No. 4.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KORAVA (SO-CALLED KORVĪ) DIALECT.

SPECIMEN III.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

Ortū-ortū manusuna-ka randēr āml-makk indāga. Agal-ulli sana A-certain man-to two male-children Them-among younger were. tang-avunk mauvu andū, 'āvā mina jinjigivulli nan-ka varra his-father-to father sonsaid. your property-in me-to coming pang nan-ka kudu. Āvu agal-ulli jinjigī tana panchya-kudatū. give.' share me-to Father them-among hisproperty divided-gave. Sana mauvu akuņd tana pang dūr nāt-ka lāva hōgi Younger hisshare taking far country-to goingmany dayāgall, addantulle ãva dund-ulli tana pang phāga-śēdū. Ãva hināga had-not-been, meanwhile luxury-in his share wasted. He80 śēda balk ā nāthai ber kharva bugada ãvank afterhaving-made thatcountry-in mighty famine having-fallen him-to badatana vanchha. Ava ā dēsuļļi ortu manusūn jyāţi tsākarī poverty He country-in that one man-of near service Ī niņdrū. manusū avana paņdrī mēsark tana kolli-ke hachchyottū. Ānji stood.Thismanhim swineto-feed hisfield-to sent. There kalavalsne pandri tingar-hantāta pott suda tindra varaga metātsbeing-hungry being-troubled swine that-can-eat husk also eating stomach kundū. Ānāka avank yārind yāndū śigallā. Hināga thodē nāļ hosa. filling. But him-to anyone-from anything was-not-found. So a-few days passed. park tana vāti nippāgi ava tana manas-uļļi aņdū, 'nang āvan hisformer stateremembering he his mind-in said, my father-of ivāti ikkir eddan tsā kari-mand-ki varaga metti hech-agar-addan anna how-many living servants-to belly filling so-as-to-exceed foodĀnāka śikkarāda. iñji nā pesta sāgāri. Ná edda nang avan is-found. Buthere I risingbeing-hungry I die. my father-of "āvā, jyāti hōgi ande, devar pāpa topan $n\bar{a}$ pāpa kāţi-kundē. going will-say, "father, I God-of sin father-of near sin have-got-tied-to-myself. nina Νā mauvu anisingark and āgarkill. Nana ortū āļ-manusūna I your 80n as to-be-calledMeam-not-fit. one servant-of

Ãva hināga ańjyunde echakō." edda tang-avan jyāṭi varvāga, He, likekeep." thence his-father-of rising near when-coming, āvu avan dūruņde pāta, kaļākaļā ands ōda-hōgi kagat-pudasa father himdistance-from seeing, pityfeeling running-going embracing mudda-adt-kundu. kiss-gave.

[No. 5.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KORAVA (SO-CALLED KORVĪ) DIALECT.

SPECIMEN IV.

(JAMKHANDI STATE.)

Hināga Avanaka añja-ala vartu arasu indū. kūliśimāra indāga. So king onewas. Him-to five-persons wives were. Agal-ulli arasu vara-vartini botū, tirigi agalaka ٠ī katū. suku Them-in king called, and one-one themasked. 'this happiness ungārā?' $n\bar{i}$ yāra dayād-inda Agal-ulli nālēru, ٠ī suku eatest? mercy-with Them-in 'this thouwhosefour, happiness dayād-inda ungārā(sic),' Paragondu ninna andāga. arasu añja-āļa-ulli king thymercy-with enjoy, said. Afterwards. five-persons-in ٠ī sannāvala bōtū tirigi avala katū, suku nī yāra asked, 'this the-youngest calledandher happiness thouwhose ungārā? kūdatā, 'Dēvara dayad-inda Avu uttara tandīda-antā ī enjoyest?' She gave. ' God mercy-with answer given-so thisvandīda. suku ninaka Atra-kāranad-inda suku $n\bar{a}$ ninna happiness thee-to came. That-reason-for thishappiness I thy dayād-inda tirigi Dēvara dayād-inda ungāri.' Ī vāti katu mercy-from andGod's mercy-from enjoy.' This wordhaving-heard arasanaka śittu vāñchū. Paragondu avala vada-mēni dāgīņi tirigi king-to angercame. Afterwards. her body-on ornaments andkovāki parasa-kundu, avala-ka vanda padiki pagana kūdutū tirigi clothes having-taken-off, her-to oneoldclothgave andberāda ārānyat-uļļi vanda gūdiśi katti avalana echchū. Appāga avalu forest-in cottagegreatone building her kept. Then sheradajita indā. Paragondu aval-ē angē mavunna ambala pregnantwas. Afterwards. she-indeed theremalechild kadi-bugudā. Arasu ī vāti lāvu katu santōsa uttū tirigi bare. King this news hearing muchsatisfaction feltandavalana bötū uţōli echchū. 'Ivu muñchi andanaga Dēvara dayādher called house-in kept. She said-as before God's mercyinda ī suku khare. hināga andu tana berastanāta hyāmēśi from thishappiness certainly,' 80 saying hisgreatness-of prideuţţu Dēvarāda berastana hogalarka hattanu. God's leaving greatness to-praise began.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

There lived a king who had five wives. He called them one by one and asked them through whose favour it was that they enjoyed their happiness. The first four answere that they enjoyed the happiness through his favour. Afterwards he called his fifth and youngest wife and asked her the same question. She replied that as God had given that much glory and happiness to him, and, as she enjoyed the happiness on his account, it was both through the favour of God and his favour also that she enjoyed the happiness. The king hearing these words was very angry. Afterwards he took off the ornaments and the clothes from her body and, giving her an old piece of cloth, sent her away to a dreary forest. There he built a cottage and left her there. She was then pregnant and afterwards gave birth to a male child. The king was very much delighted to hear the news. The king afterwards sent for her and brought her back to the palace. The king afterwards admitted the greatness of God and gave up the pride of his greatness and began to praise the greatness of God.

[No. 6.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KORAVA (SO-CALLED KORVĀRU) DIALECT.

Specimen V.

(DISTRICT BIJAPUR.)

DEPOSITION OF A WITNESS.

Hona mādat-oli Sindigi jāttiri āgi rand $m\bar{u}d$ dina Past month-in fair Sindagi having-become twothreedaysānda-mēne śegāt-oli rand tāsa pōdu verida-mēne Rāō-sāb becoming-after morning-in twohours timerising-after Rāō-Sahih māmaladār kachchērit-oli nā indē. Mādūrāya kulkarni ĩva appaga Mamlatdār office-in 1 was. Mādūrāya the-Kulkarni this thennōndani kachchēri bailaka ukkānd-indu. Saranya Ārōpi ortan-ka registrationoffice outsidesitting-was. Saranya The-accused one-to bōta-kondu vanda. Mādūrāyanaka, 'nannu-dasanda nōndani kāgida having-called came. Mādūrāya-to, 'me-for registration deedvariraka vā, andaSaranya botā. Appaga Mādūrāya tiragi nā to-write come,' saying Saranya called. Then $M\bar{a}d\bar{u}r\bar{a}ya$ and I kachchēri vottu vanda. Nāgaļa Śirśād Sidalingappana ūtaka · hōnō. office having-left came. WeSirśād Śidalingappa-of house-to went. ikyārē. Avati $n\bar{a}$ Ippaga kōtina munnē nikkira ārōpi tiragi avana There I live. Now courtbefore standing accusedandhimkūda ortanu randēru kūda vandā. Mādūrāyana jēvati ukkandu. withone two with came. Mādūrāya near he-sat. Mādūrāya Mādūrāyanaka dast varadu. vār śondu vara-siranga $M\bar{a}d\bar{u}r\bar{a}ya$ deedwrote. Mādūrāva-to who tellingto-write-caused Ι katilla. Tōdē põda āda-mēne āropi Saranya ĩva yakarē heard-not. Little timebecoming-after accusedSaranya thisareasarvē-nambara māyiti attungaraka ūta uttu hōnu. Survey-number information in-order-to-bring househaving-left went. Ā-mine āropinaka $n\bar{a}$ pātilla. yeppagū Ārōpi hönu tusu That-after the-accused ever saw-not. The-accused having-gone little yālyatoļi varttanu vandu. Mādūrāyanaka, ' kāgida varimāņa, kotti kāgida time-in some-one came. Mādūrāya-to, ' deed write-not, false deed igadu,' anda sondu. is, saying said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Two or three days after the Sindagi fair last month I was in the office of the Mamlatdar about two hours after rising time in the morning. The Kulkarni Mādūrāya was then sitting outside the registration office. The accused Saranya then came after having been out to call somebody. Saranya said to Mādūrāya, 'come and write a registration deed for me.' Mādūrāya and I then left the office and came with him to the house of Sirśād Śidalingappa, where I live. One or two men had come there together with the accused now standing in court. He sat near Mādūrāya who wrote the deed. I did not hear who told him what to write. Short time afterwards the accused Śaranya went from the house in order to ascertain the survey number of the area. Since then I have not seen the accused again. Shortly after he had gone away some one came and said to Mādūrāya, 'don't write out this document, it is a forgery.'

IRULA AND KASUVA.

These dialects are both spoken outside the territory included in the Linguistic Survey, and they cannot, therefore, be dealt with in this place. Irula vocabularies have been published by Hodgson, *Miscellaneous Essays*, Vol. ii, London, 1880, pp. 105 and ff., and in the *Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency*, Vol. ii, pp. 193 and ff. The affiliation of Kasuva is doubtful.

At the Census of 1891, Kasuva was spoken by 316 persons in the Nilgiri Hills. In 1901 only 241 speakers were returned. The figures for Irula were as follows:—

							Census, 1891.	Census, 1901.
Cuddapah							32	
North Arcot		•	•	•			1	7
Salem	•	•	•				8	•••
Coimbatore							377	106
Nilgiris							1,196	819
					To	TAL	1,614	932
								-

KAIKĀDĪ.

The Kaikādīs are a vagrant tribe of mat-makers. They are found in the Bombay Presidency, Berar, and the Central Provinces. Their number has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey as shown in the table which follows, and which also registers the figures returned at the last Census of 1891:—

								E	stimate	d number.	Census	of 1901.
Bombay Presidence	y									7,365		1,484
Ahmednagar									700	***************************************	477	
Khandesh											42	
Nasik .	•								•••		4	
Poona .								. 2	2,300		438	
Satara .				. •	•				450		235	
Sholapur								.3	3,000		224	
Belgaum		•							200		•••	
Kolaba									100		•••	
Akalkot											43	
Satara Agenc	У								415		21	
Southern Mar		Jaghi	irs						200			
Berar										879		10,732
Haiderabad												2,380
Central Provinces	(Nin	nar)	•	•						45		2
												
						T_0	TAL			8,289		14,598
	•											

Kaikādī in most respects agrees with vulgar Tamil and will therefore be dealt with as a dialect of that form of speech. Like other Tamil dialects, it in several points agrees with Kanarese, and it must therefore be derived from an older form when Tamil and Kanarese had not as yet been differentiated so much as is the case at the present day.

The dialect is not exactly the same in all districts. It is purest in Sholapur, from where the greatest number of speakers has been returned. In the Satara Agency and in Ahmednagar the number of speakers is less, and the influence of the speech of the bulk of the population is strongly felt. In Berar the state of affairs is similar. Thus we find forms such as gāvās musallā, he said to his father; mulukāt, in the country, in Akola; hōnās, thou wentest, in Buldana, etc. On the whole, however, the local variations are comparatively small, and are almost always due to corruption through the influence of other forms of speech. It is therefore sufficient to print the specimens received from Sholapur as illustrations of the dialect. The beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son received from the Melkapur Taluka, District Buldana, will be added in order to show that the dialect of Berar is essentially identical. The beginning of a similar version received from Ellichpur will finally be reproduced. It in many respects forms the link connecting Kaikādī with the so-called Burgaṇḍī. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, received from Sholapur, will be found on pp. 646 and ff. below.

Pronunciation.—Long and short vowels are very commonly interchanged; thus, vandu, $v\bar{a}ndu$, $vand\bar{u}$, and $v\bar{a}nd\bar{u}$, he came. O and \bar{u} are apparently interchangeable; thus, $app\bar{o}$ and $app\bar{u}$, then.

The palatals are, at least in Sholapur, pronounced as in Telugu, *i.e.*, as ts, dz, respectively, if they are not followed by i, e, or y.

An h often corresponds to a p in ordinary Tamil. Thus, $h\bar{o}$, and in Ahmednagar even \bar{o} , go. In Kolaba, however, we find $p\bar{o}$. The change of p to h is common in Kanarese.

Final l is dropped as in Korava and vulgar Tamil. Thus, $g\bar{o}g\bar{a}$, sons, but $g\bar{o}glak$, to the sons.

Nouns.—The genders are sometimes confounded. In Ellichpur the neuter forms of the demonstrative pronouns are apparently always used also for the masculine.

The suffixes of the plural are $g\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}ng$; thus, $g\bar{o}u$, a son; $g\bar{o}-g\bar{a}$, the sons; $g\bar{o}-g\bar{a}$, to the sons: khudri, a horse; $khudry\bar{a}ng$, horses.

Forms such as urtyā, women, from urtī, woman, are Marāthī.

Case suffixes are added to the base of neuter nouns. Thus, ut-ali, in the house. Occasionally, however, we find the base modified before suffixes as in Tamil. Thus, man-t-uli, in the mind, in the specimens received from Aundh.

The dative is commonly also used as an accusative. It usually takes the suffix k or ku; thus, $g\bar{a}un$ -k, to the father. We sometimes also find an accusative suffix l in words such as khudril, the horses; pyendril, swine.

The genitive sometimes agrees with the qualified noun in gender, as is also the case in Göndī. Thus, ninnāu māng, thy son; khudryād khōgir, the horse's saddle. In Kolaba we also meet with forms such as ayyan-aṭa ūṭle, in the father's house. Compare the Tamil suffix udeiya.

The suffix of the locative is ali, uli, or oli. In Kolaba and Ellichpur we find ale used instead. Thus, ut-ali, in the house; kāl-uli, on the feet.

The case suffixes will, on the whole, be found to agree pretty well with Korava.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are sometimes inflected. Thus, nalla urāpāy, a good man; nallayā urāyā, good men; nallād urtī, a good woman; nallayā urtyā, good women.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They are the same as in Korava and vulgar Tamil.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns have almost the same forms as in Korava. The usual forms are as follows:—

nān, nā, I.
nān-k, me, to me.
nān, nannād, my.
nāṅg, we.
nāṅglāda, our.

nīn, nī, thou.
nīn-k, to thee.
nin, ninnāu, ninnād, thy.
nīng, you.
ninglād, your.

āu, he; ād, ata, it. āun-k, him; atka, it. āun, his; ātan, its. āung, neuter ayā they. āunglād, their.

The form $n\bar{a}ng$ seems to be the exclusive plural, corresponding to Tamil $n\bar{a}ngal$. When the person addressed is included the plural of the first person is $n\bar{a}mb$, dative $n\bar{a}m$ -burk (corresponding to Tamil $n\bar{a}m$), in the Sholapur specimens.

The neuter singular seems to be used as a feminine. Compare $nall\bar{a}d$ $urt\bar{\imath}$, a good woman. There are, however, no instances of a feminine pronoun in the specimens, and the verbal suffix of the third person singular feminine is \bar{a} , which corresponds to Tamil al.

The interrogative pronouns are $y\bar{a}u$, who? $mid\bar{a}$, what? We sometimes also find the neuter form $\bar{e}du$ instead of $y\bar{a}u$, who? The genitive of $y\bar{a}u$ is yattan, whose? $Y\bar{a}u$ is occasionally also used as a relative pronoun.

Verbs.—The personal terminations are as follows:—

	Sing.			P		
1.	\bar{e} , $\bar{\imath}$, i .		250	1.	\bar{o}, \bar{u} .	
2.	$ar{a}.$			2.	$\tilde{a}\dot{n}g$.	
3 m.	\bar{o} , \bar{u} , u .	15		3 m. &	f. ang.	
3f.	$ar{a}_{ullet}$			3 n.	$gar{a}$.	4
3 n.	da(du); tsa (tsu) .				Ĭ.	

Thus, indī, I was; 2 indā; 3 m. indu; 3 f. indā; 3 n. intsa; plur. 1 indū; 2 indāng; 3 m. and f. indāng; 3 n. intsgā. A neuter plural indāni, were, is recorded from Ramdrug. Compare Tamil.

The present tense of the verb substantive is $igar\bar{\imath}$, I am; igada, it is; $igadg\bar{a}$, they (neuter subject) are. In Berar we find kiri, I am, etc., used instead.

The present tense of finite verbs is formed by adding a suffix $\bar{a}k$ $(g\bar{a}k)$ or $\bar{a}r$. Thus, $i\dot{q}d\bar{a}k\bar{\imath}$, I strike; $var\bar{a}k$, it comes; $h\bar{o}g\bar{a}k\bar{\imath}$ (Kolaba $p\bar{o}g\bar{a}r\bar{e}$), I go; $niky\bar{a}k\bar{a}$, thou art; Ramdrug $s\bar{a}g\bar{a}ri$, I die; Kolaba $son\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, I say; $\acute{s}ey\bar{a}r\bar{o}$, he is doing.

The past tense is formed by means of the same suffixes as in Tamil. Compare svandu, he said; nindu, he lived; hōnu, he went; hatnu, he began; pātu, he saw; kuḍatō, he gave. Forms such as śendutu, he has done; yakpisutu, he spent, are compounds. Compare Tamil urrēn, pronounced uttēn, I was. Forms such as bhēṭitsnō, he met; vāutsa, it came; tingāntsgā, (the pigs) ate, should be compared with vulgar Tamil forms such as paḍichchān, he learned; paḍichchadu, it learnt (corresponding to standard paḍittān, paḍittadu, respectively); āchchu and āchchudu instead of āyirru, it became, it was. Āsa, it was, in a specimen received from Akola, directly corresponds to vulgar Tamil āchchu.

The form $hatn\bar{a}$ instead of $hatn\bar{a}ng$, they began, is probably due to the influence of Marāthī.

In Ellichpur we find forms such as $p\bar{e}sus$, he said; gudtusu, he gave; $h\bar{o}su$, he went. They appear to contain the suffix $\underline{t}\underline{s}a$ or $\underline{t}\underline{s}u$ of the third person neuter. Similar forms also occur in Burgandī.

The future apparently corresponds to the Tamil present. Thus, ikarī, I shall be; edkirī, I shall arise; idrī, I shall strike; hōgrī, I shall go.

For further details the specimens which follow should be consulted. The two first ones have been received from Sholapur. They are a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a short popular tale. It will be seen that they represent a form of speech which very closely agrees with Tamil and especially with Korava.

The third specimen is the beginning of a version of the Parable forwarded from the Melkapur Taluka of District Buldana. It represents the same form of speech, but is much more influenced by Aryan languages. It may be taken as a representative of the dialect as spoken in Berar. The fourth specimen, the beginning of a version of the Parable from Ellichpur, is of a similar kind. In some details it agrees with the so-called Burgandī, which will be separately dealt with below.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 646 and ff. It has been forwarded from Sholapur.

[No. 7.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KAIKĀDĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT SHOLAPUR.)

gōgā intsgā. Ā randun-ul-āu chittyāu Vanda mansan-k randa One sons were. Those two-among-being the-younger man-to two tā. Āu pang nān-k nannād tān gāun-k svandu. 'gāvā, give.' share Hefather, me-to father-to said, myhishōti tandu. Munni ātan-chillī tān samsārād pang gāu Then that-according father hisproperty-of sharehaving-put gave. adni gōļā śendundi ānik thodya divas-uli tān samsārūnā sannāu allproperty together having-made and days-in the-younger hisfew ānik tān samsār udalpanā ūr-k hōnu. angē thūr par country-to went. and there property extravagance other far vātola-sendutu. Yappū adni samsār yakpisutu adni appū śendi When allhad-spent wasted-made. property having-made allthenĀ bhyārrādh kārrū bhuntsa. vakat-ka āun-k ūruļi ā That greatfamine fell. time-at him-to thatcountry-in ā ūruli duddād lahāu kami bhuntsa. Phārg vanda fell. Then thatcountry-in greatscarcity money-of oneĀu āun-k kvālloļi phyendril naukarī niņdu. mēichirk mansan-kitta āu Hehimfield-in swine service stayed. to-feed he man-near ātan tingāntsgā suddā Phyendrya etta tarpal hāchitū. bhyēr huskwere-eating thoseSwine which even greatsent. metādsundikiyō, āu tān vārga pan attu suddā thindi santōshasuli bellywould-have-filled, butthat having-eaten hehiseven joy-in kudtillā. Āu yappū suddi-mini vāndū, appō āu tān ēdu then Hе when sense-on came, he his him-to gave-not. anyone lahāu manasgal-kitta svandu, 'nān gāun padaruli thindi manuli · my many said, father's service-in men-near having-eaten mind-in iddūn anna igada. $N\bar{a}$ parantu phatni sāgātiri. Nā. ulīda I butstarving so-much foodis. am-dying. Ι remaining svalrī, "āvā, ānik nā hōgi nān gāunk edkirē $n\bar{a}$ ninnād my father-to will-say, "father, will-arise and I having-gone thyśendirī. Itan-śivāy ninnāu māng dēvarād pāp svandi ātungrik va God's have-done. This-from thysonhaving-said and to-take

chalkē illā. Atundusk nān-k nin tsākrīgadyān chalkē tsakrī etstsud." worthy not. Therefore me thy servants likeservice keep." Hinang svandi yatstsu pharg tan gaun nerk vāndū. Au thur Thus having-said arose then his father towards came. He far ikkyā āun gāu āun-k pātu, ānik māyā vāndi āun nerk being his father himand pity · saw, having-comehimtowards hōgi āun khagat-k bhundi Mang mukā ātundu. having-run having-gone hisneck-to having-fallen kisstook. The-son svandu, 'āvā, nā dēvarād va ninglād gunhā śendiri, ānik ātan-munni father, I God-of and you-of sin have-done, and henceforth ninnāu māng svandi ātungrik yagyi illā.' Tar āun gau thyhaving-said to-take worthy not.' Butfather his his. tsākrīgadyān svandu, ' nālla kvāki ātiyā āun vādbuļi hodgo, āun kāili servants-to 'good said, cloth bring hisbody-in put, his hand-on hōti āun kāluli kālād mudur hōdgō. Anik nadāngō, nāmb putting ring hisfoot-on shoes put. And go, we undi ānand śaīvāngō. thindi nān māng śattindu, Iupan having-drunk let-make. This having-eaten joy myhad-died, sonbutthirgi jīva vāntsa; āu kāljindu, phārguṇdā dvārkunu.' pan Hanā came; hehad-been-lost, again lifebut againis-found.' Soāung ānand svandi śairark hatnā. having-said theyjoy to-make began.

Inta āun bhyēr mang kvālluli indu. Āu henā-henā ūţ-kitta Now hiselderson field-in was. Heas house-near vārark hatnu. hanā-hanā pādrād va ādrād āun svaikyē vārrark began, singing his to-comeso anddancing ear-to to-come hatstsa. Āu vanda tsākrī-gadyānk bötundi vāndi, 'ida Heone servant-to having-called began. having-come, this midād?' svandi ketō. Āu āunk svandū ki, 'ningala what?' having-said asked.Hehim-to saidthat, 'your vāndirō. Āu tvembi khuśäl vāndi gaunk bhētitsnō. Hehas-come. having-come father-to younger-brother safe was-met, ātun-dusk āu khuśālī śendū.' Āta svaikēti āu yārsk-vāndū ānik made.' feast That having-heard therefore heheanger-came andhōgāmi-ānō. Ātun-dusk ulak āun gāu valaki vāndū ānik āun inside not-go-would. Therefore his outsidefather came and his vinanti śendu. Pharg āu tān gāvank svandu, ' pārgō, nā lahāu made. Then Ι entreaty he hisfather-to said, 'see, many vatkālā nin <u>ts</u>ākrī śayāke, vadšillā. Hina ān yandrū ninna vāti nā service So years thydo. andI ever thywordbroke-not. indi nānk sõbtyān barābar majā śayirk yandrū āt-kutti suddā tandillā. being me-to friends feast kidgavest-not. withto-make ever even

Pan yāu ninnād adni jingānī raņdikāluļi yakpi<u>ts</u>nō, āu nin māng property harlotry-in squandered, that thy But who thy allsonāunk khuśālī śendā.' vāndi barābar, nī āunk Appog madest.' having-come immediately, thou him-to feast Then him-to heilbhar svandū, 'govanē, nī nān kitta nikyākā. Itun-dusk nān said, alwayslivest. This-for 'son-O, thoumenear mykiţtād adni ninnād igada. Iu nin tyembi śattindu, āunk thine is. This thy younger-brother near-being allhad-died, him-to jīva vāntsa; āu kāļjindu, āu dvārkunu. Ātan-dusk majā lifecame; he had-been-lost, he is-found. Therefore I feast nāmburk khuśāl śayiyu āgavā, ada yagyi igada.' should-make us to should-become, that proper joy is.'

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KAIKĀDĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT SHOLAPUR.)

A POPULAR TALE.

Palasgav svandi vanda intsa. ūr Angē vanda banda $Palasg\tilde{a}v$ having-said one village was. There one bandy-man indu. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{k}$ randa gogā intsgā. Vartan pēra Khanderao, āniki inivartan Him-to was. twosons One-of name were. Khanderāo, andother-of Yasavantrão. pēra $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ kitta randa nāllayā khudryāng intsgā. Vanda nameYasavantrāo. Him near two goodhorses were. One khudri pēra Khanderao, āniki inivanda khudri pēra Yasavantrāo. horse-of name Khandērāo, andother horse-of name Yasavantrāo. Ā banda śatta-barka āun kuliśi talaghar-uli khudryāng dhvānkśi That carrier dead-after his wife cellar-in horses concealing etstsutā, ā khudryāng āun kankē hōti illā. Gögä bhērkā those horses their kept, sight-to putting not. Boys big āna-barka gām-ka tolangāmī āung talaghar ughdisnāng, appō ā becoming-on mother-to telling-not they cellar opened, then those khudril āung pātāng Aung svandāng, 'nāng khudri-mini khvānkvāko.' horses theysaw. Theysaid. · we horses-on let-ride." Gām sollākā-mān, mitka-midā? 'manasgā pātāng majē ninglak Mother allowed-not, why ?-what? · men saw then you iddi khudril pitstsung-rang.' Gögā ada kettsagā illā. Aung having-beaten horses will-take-away. **Boys** thatheeded not. They atan-mini kvānsāng va tāngaśi ũrk A honang. nāllayā $them \cdot on$ rodeandsister's village-to went. Those goodkhudryāng āun metstsun pātu; appō āun man-uli khārta vāntsa. horses their brother-in-law saw; then mind-in desire his came. Aunk vātitsa ki, 'ivanka khudryāng lābhis-kudkānālā.' Pharg Him-to it-appeared that, 'these-to horses to-get-is-not-suitable.' Then he ā gögalak sarāi āu kudpāti gung śendu. Pharg rājā those boys liquorhaving-caused-to-drink Then drunkmade. herājā nerk hōnu āniki svandu. 'āunk iddi khudryāng pitstsundi near went and said, 'them horses having-taken having-beaten 2 x 2

höngu.' Āun tāngśiki ada tolang-untsa. Appō tāngśi āuṅgaļak go.' known-became. Their sister-to Then that the-sister them khudri-mini khvānpisnā, 'bhungrang,' khārg indi randyārk 'will-fall,' horse-on placed, thinking rope having-taken bothkatnā. elsi Ā mokļā usutang, ayā dhāvi<u>ts</u>a khudryāṅg dhāvi<u>ts</u>a tān tightbound. Those horses loose were-let, they running running his ürk vāntsgā, itan-chillī göglād iīva phākpitsgā. JULIAN BULLIAN saved. village-to came, this-according boys-of life

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

There was a village called Palasgav. There a bandy-carrier lived. He had two sons, one named Khandērāo, and the other called Yaśvantrāo. He also possessed two good horses, likewise called Khandērāo and Yaśvantrāo. When he died his wife kept the horses in the cellar and did not let the boys see them. When the boys had grown up they went and opened the cellar without telling their mother. They then saw the horses and wanted to ride on them. The mother did not allow them to, 'because,' said she, 'if you are seen, the people will kill you and carry off the horses.' The boys did not heed her but rode off to their sister's. When their brother-in-law saw those good horses, he coveted them and thought, 'I cannot leave those horses to them.' So he got the boys to take liquor and get drunk, and then he went to the Rājā and said, 'kill them and take the horses.' Their sister learned about this design. She put them on the horses and tied them up with ropes lest they should fall. The horses then were let loose and ran straight home. In this way they saved the boys' life.

[No. 9.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KAIKĀDĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN III.

(DISTRICT BULDANA.)

Vanda mansanka randa gōgā. Chittava sandu kī, 'nānna One man-to two sons. The-younger saidthat, 'my tā.' bangā nān-ku Gāvu randyar-ku pānguṭa kudatu. Chittavu share me-to give.' The-father both-to dividing gave. The-younger adnu tanna samsāra gōļā sindu dēśan-meni yalkithenu. Angī allhispropertytoget her · made country-on went. There hōgī adnu kalaj-gondu. Adnu kalaj-gondu ā nātoli kārava hoving-gone wasted. allAllwasted that country-in famine bhuntsu. Pharag adachan $\bar{a}g\bar{a}$ pharag hōgī <u>ts</u>ākarī pidasu. fell. Then difficulty becoming after having-gone service joined. Kvalloli phendri kākar yathutu. Field-in pigsto-tend sent.

[No. 10.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

KAIKĀDĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN IV.

(DISTRICT ELLICHPUR.)

Vaņd mansō-ku raņd bāņdgā niņdintsu. Ātul-sē chityād bānd. One man-to twosons were. Them-in-from the-younger 80n pēsus, ٠gā, nantā jindagānī-tā jaü jindagānī nān-ku tā.' Phārgu said, father, mineproperty-of which property me-to give.' Then āttu sampadā pāņţī gudatusu. Phārgu jarās dinungā chityād band property dividing he gave. Then few daysthe-younger sonhadduni jindagānī vand jāgī jamāvandsu. thur nāţku hōsu, allproperty one place collected, far country-to went. hānik angē tandu jindagānī yakshisutesu. Phārgu ādu sadar and there hisproperty wasted. Then he allkharchī-āi hōsu ā dēsale bhārī khār bhunsu. having-spent-having-become went that country-in heavy famine fell. Annāmui ātku bhārī adtsan bhunsu. Āpa ādu $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ dēsale Therefore him-to great difficulty fell. Then hethatcountry-in vaņda mansō-giţţā nindusu. Ātku ādu phendi mhēsāku tandu kollule one man-near stayed. Himhe swine to-feed his field-in thörtusu. Āра phendi jaü sāltā tinnu ata-mhene vargā methādsisu, sent. Then swine which huskseat that-on belly was-filling, înă nanku (sic) tavangusu; hākin innā śeńji-illa gudtuslā. Phārgu ādu. him-to it-appeared; and anything did-not gave-not. Then hesud-mene vansu pēsus, 'nā gāvā ingē ennā töndör-gä ballā kirn sense-on came said, 'my fatherwith how-many servantsmany areattī hākin nān vārgukē sākkē. Nan etsī $n\bar{a}$ gāvō nērē to-eatand I hunger-with die. Ι having-arisen my father near hōgrē hākin ātku pēsusu, "ē gāvā, ābhāy sāmnē hākin will-go nind and him-to 8ay, " O father, heaven against andtheesāmnē pāpā śeñjī. Nīndu bānd illā ipar māphak. Nindu against sin I-did. Thy 80n not henceforth worthy. Thy tondo-paryanë ei.", servant-like keep."

BURGANDĪ.

This is the dialect of another vagrant tribe. It has been returned for the purposes of this Survey from Nimar and from the Central India Agency. The following are the revised figures:—

					E	Estimated number.	Census of 1901.
Central Provinces, Nimar							21
Central India	•	•	٠		•	. 255	652
				To	TAL	. 265	673

Burgandi is closely connected with Kaikādi. It is apparently dying out, and the specimens received from the districts are very unsatisfactory. A version of the Parable and a short popular tale have been forwarded from Bagli in the Indore Agency and will be reproduced below. A list of Standard Words and Phrases was received from the same district, but it was too corrupt to be printed. A short specimen was also received from Nimar, but did not contain any new forms. The Burgandis of Nimar assert that they have immigrated from Khandesh. They also call themselves Kulrangs or Kargands.

The short remarks on Burgandi grammar which follow are based on the materials mentioned above, and are given with every reserve.

Nouns.—There are no traces of different genders in the specimens. The natural gender is distinguished by adding $\tilde{a}d$, male, and phat, female. Thus, vand $\tilde{a}d$ nay, a dog; vand phat nay, a bitch. But the plural and the cases are always formed in the same way. The suffix of the plural is $\dot{n}g$; compare Kaikādī. Thus, $\bar{u}r\bar{a}p\bar{o}$, a man; $\bar{u}r\bar{a}ng$, men: ghwant, a son; ghwantang, sons; $n\bar{a}y$, a dog; $n\bar{a}yang$, dogs.

The usual case suffixes are, dative and accusative k; ablative $k\bar{e}$ and kun; genitive \bar{e} , $n\bar{e}$, and no suffix; locative $k\bar{o}$ and $k\bar{e}$. Thus, $g\bar{a}vak$, to the father; $\bar{u}r\bar{a}p\bar{o}-k\bar{e}$, from a man; $u\bar{t}kun$, from the house; $nin\bar{e}$ $g\bar{a}v$ $u\bar{t}-k\bar{o}$, in thy father's house; $nan\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}n\bar{e}$ $m\bar{o}n\bar{g}$, my uncle's son; $\bar{u}r-k\bar{o}$, in the country; $u\bar{t}-k\bar{e}$, in the house.

We occasionally also find accusatives such as ghwant-ang, the son.

Numerals.—The numerals are the same as in Kaikādī. 'Nine' is, however, ommad, and 'twenty' ird. Higher numbers are reckoned in scores. Thus, rand ird pat, two times twenty and ten, fifty; añj ird, five times twenty, hundred.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nā, I.	nī, thou.	ad, he.
nanak, to me.	ninak, to thee.	attak, to him.
nanē, my.	ninē, thy.	$atn\bar{e}$, his.
nang, we.	ning, you.	$a\tilde{n}j$, they.
nangal, nanglā, our.	ninglē, your.	asangē, their.

Other pronouns are *tingal*, to him; jō, who? yatnē, whose? mī, what? Compare Kaikādī.

It will be seen that the form ad, he, is the neuter form, corresponding to Tamil adu, that.

Verbs.—The list of words gives the following forms of the present tense of the verbs substantive—

Sing.	1.	$sirar{e}$		Plur.	1.	sir u.
70	2.	sirā.			2.	sirū.
	3.	sir			3.	sirū,

S is in this verb interchangeable with ch. Thus we also find chir, he is; $chir\bar{u}$, they are. Such forms correspond to $kir\bar{e}$, I am, and so forth, in some forms of Kaikādī. The personal terminations of the singular are also the same as in that form of speech. In the plural there is apparently only one form for all three persons. In the case of finite verbs, however, the list of words gives $p\bar{o}in\bar{o}$, we went; but $p\bar{o}in\bar{a}ng$, you, or they, went.

The past tense of the verb substantive is given as $n\bar{\imath}dis$ in all persons and numbers. The first specimen, however, contains the plural form $n\bar{\imath}disu$, they were.

The present tense of finite verbs is formed much as in Kaikādī. Thus, $nik\bar{a}k\bar{e}$, I live; $s\bar{a}g\bar{a}k\bar{e}$, I die; $p\bar{o}g\bar{a}k\bar{e}$, I go; $ting\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ let us eat; $siy\bar{a}k\bar{o}$, let us do; $ting\bar{a}k\bar{u}$, they eat. The list of words gives $adky\bar{a}$, instead of $adky\bar{a}k$, he strikes. Similarly we also find $nikk\bar{a}$ instead of $nik\bar{a}k\bar{a}$, thou livest. The plural ends in \bar{o} or \bar{u} in all persons; thus, $p\bar{o}g\bar{a}k\bar{o}$, we, you, or they, go. The list of words also gives $adky\bar{a}k\bar{a}ng$, you strike.

Forms such as ning salānē ad siyānē, you say that I-do, I obey your order, are perhaps imperfects. Compare nā pēlā adkiyōnē, I was beating, in the List. I have not ventured to correct the original translation.

The past tense is usually formed by means of one of the suffixes s (or ch) and n. Thus, $ads\bar{e}$, I struck; $ads\bar{a}$, thou struckest; adich, he struck; $adch\bar{u}$, we, you, or they, struck: $p\bar{o}in\bar{e}$, I went; $p\bar{o}in\bar{a}$, thou wentest; $p\bar{o}s$, he went; $p\bar{o}in\bar{o}$, we went; $p\bar{o}in\bar{a}ng$, you, or they, went.

Such forms are very common. Thus, $se\tilde{n}j\bar{e}$, I did; $s\bar{e}j\bar{a}$, thou didst; $\bar{a}kn\bar{a}$, thou madest; $se\tilde{n}j\bar{o}$, we did; $ting\bar{a}s\bar{u}$, they ate; $nik\bar{a}s\bar{u}$, they lived.

The third person singular always ends in s or ch. Thus, thōrach, he sent; pātas, he saw; hōras, he ran; ēnpiskus, he wasted; vānch, he came. Is or us (ōs) is sometimes added. Thus, mandisōs and mandich, he began; pēsis or pēsus, he said; sējus, he did.

There are several other forms which apparently contain a suffix $y\bar{o}$. Thus, $v\bar{a}ngy\bar{o}t$, I drove; $v\bar{a}ngus$ and $v\bar{a}ngy\bar{o}tus$, he drove; $\bar{e}ley\bar{o}s$, he went; $\bar{a}gey\bar{o}s$, it happened. Forms such as $\bar{e}ly\bar{o}$ $n\bar{i}dis$, he had gone, lit. gone he-was, seem to point to the conclusion that this $y\bar{o}$ is the suffix of a past participle passive. It is therefore probably borrowed from Rājasthānī.

A perfect is vanchir, he has come. It is formed from the conjunctive participle vanch by adding ir, another form of sir, he is.

The future is apparently formed as in Kaikādī. Thus, adikrā, thou wilt strike; āgarē, I shall be; āgar and āgyōgar, he will be. Mētārisungā, I shall fill, is, in its termination, apparently a Rājasthānī form. Other forms are khālākē, I shall go; sarlē, I shall say; koḍturē, I shall give; pōrākē, I shall throw. I cannot analyse them with certainty.

The pegative particle is a prefixed $l\bar{a}$, corresponding to the suffixed $ill\bar{a}$ in Kaikādī. Thus, $l\bar{a}$ $p\bar{o}s$, he did not go; $l\bar{a}$ -dakkā, he did not get. The use of a prefixed $l\bar{a}$ is probably due to Aryan influence. I cannot analyse $l\bar{a}rv\bar{a}$ $t\bar{o}sai$, you did not at any time give.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. I have corrected them as best I could, but they are still far from being satisfactory. They seem to show that Burgandi is originally a form of Kaikādi. It has, however, undergone so many changes that it must be considered as a separate dialect,

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[No. II.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

BURGANDI DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(Indore Agency.)

ūrāpō rand ghwantang nīdisū. Sir Vand ghwant gāva One man(-of)twosons were. Younger son father (-to) 'nangla pang-bangar tāndur.' Phārag ghwantak pēsis, gāv bangar-pang · our share-wealth give.' Thensaid, father son-to wealth-share potātas. Thorā nāl bhargā hadnū bangār aratku sir ghwant after allwealth having-collected younger Fewdaysgave. son thwar thūn ūr ēleyōs, āñjā poinā nīdis. khōtā-khālas bangār went, therefar foreign country going stayed, bad-company wealth Adankō ā ēnpiskus. ūr pyattaney āgeyōs. Ā ghwant country That-in thatgrain-scarcity squandered. occurred. That sonnā kup lā-dakkā ting tōkar hinā āgevos. Ā ūrkō vand to-eat breadandsaltnot-got 80 it-happened. That country-in one ūrāpō nīdis at-mātke Ā bhar pōs. ūrāpō pendring bhar mēpigal-kē was him-to he-went. Thatbigman bigman swinegrazing-for ā ghwant kwālung-kō thorach. Tingal ādulā kurkāsū. Adnēkō tingal fields-in sent. Him-to nobody thatgave. That-in him-to pendring tingāsu nanē āgeyōs, 'tānē chāpar jõ varg nā bi mind occurred, corn husks which swine atemy belly Ialsomētārisungā.' Bharē āsad atnē mankō hinā sējus, ' tō iñjē $n\bar{a}$ will-fill. Then sense-coming his mind-in thus did, 'now here I phēskū sāgākē; idan nanē gāv utkē ūrāng hargū tingākū. hunger-with die; so-many father's myhouse-in men mucheat. gāv-māţkē khālākē hinā $N\bar{a}$ bi sarlē. " gāv-ē, davar utkē I father-to also will-go thus will-say, "father-O, God's house-in ki-chāvē ninē utkē midān señjē. $N\bar{a}$ $nin\bar{e}$ mong la-agrewala. Ninē thy house-in or-also sinI-did. I . thy son not-worthy. Thy phāniyā-sairēwālā sirū utkē atkō vand harajgū." Põs let-be." ' He-went having-left house-in work-doers arethem-in I one atnē gāv mātke khallas. Gāv thwartun möngak patas: gāv hisFather father towent. far-from the-son saw; father ang mandisos, ad horas tō mõngak pēchkus, vāy nāk-mandisōs. Mong pitied, heran then son embraced, mouth to-kiss-began. The-son 2 Y

midān sal-mandich ki, gāv-ē, utkē ninē utkē senje. davar I-did. house-in sinto-say-began that, 'father-O, God's house-in thy 'itgal-kē lallē lallē Ninē möng lāāgrēwālā.' Gāv phāniyā-sairēwālā-kō pēsis, 'this-for good good not-worthy.' Father servants-to said. Thy son thini bhatung thini kai-kō madrung atyāngō, ittak ūriringō; andclothes cause-to-put-on; and hand-on ring bring, this-to ānand kālung-kō Thini nang hadnö tingākō machchung ūriringō. let-eat cause-to-put-on. And we alljoy feet-on shoes Nane mong sato nidis mange vanch.' majā-saī siyākō. Hadnō ūta All house merry-to-make let-make. dead was againcame.' Mysonmandich. began.

ēllas mōt mōng kwāl-mēlē nīdis. Ajā-gun ut-mātkē vanch, Hisfield-in was. There-from came house-near came, bigson Vand phāniyā-sairēwālā sagētas. bōtas. ad bājā sagētas thinī ādrē heard. One servant called, he musicheardand dancing Attak ' mērē mi ākvō sir?' sanch vańch-phārag kētas ki, bhāī, coming-after 'my brother, whatdone is?' Him-to he-said askedthat, adgalkē ki, 'ninē lultarikē vāńchir. Ninē gāv rēt-tokrā ākyos. tēm that. thy brother safely. come-is. Thy father him-for feast gave.' utkun valkē lā-pōs. Gāv Mote $\mathbf{t}\mathbf{ar{e}m}$ yarus-kō vāńch ut-kõ $^!Big$ brother anger-in came house-in not-went. Father house-from outsidevanch ghwantang pēsik mange sal mandich, mandich. $Atn\bar{e}$ gāvak came 80n to-entreat began. Hisfather-to again to-say began, 'idan vatkālē phāniyā siyānē. Ning salānē ad siyane. Nanuk vand at YouI-do. Me-to thatone goat 'so-many years workI-do. say madāng-mārung māṭkē khwānch tingvo kuttiyā pakkō lārvā tōsai sitting I-should-eat friends withyoung even never gavest(?)tosai. Ninē mõng bangār pang atkus köntpanā ēnpiskus, sīr riotously squandered, gavest(?). Thyyoung sonwealth share took thenad vanch adgalkē lallē tingrēd sējā.' Atnē gāv idan sanch ki, him-for His father so-much saidfeast madest.' that, camebignā-māţkē sir jō ninē 'hē möng, sadaning nikkā kāng. Jō .0 What me-with thatthine son, always you aretogether. mangē vānch. Adgalkē nang ēlyō nīdis, ad etā senjo.' Ninē tēm we feast made.' Thy brother came. Therefore gone was, heagain

[No. 12.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TAMIL.

BURGANDI DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

(INDORE AGENCY.)

Vand prāmanēd nīdis, vand nīdis mār. \mathbf{Ad} mār gwādum-kwāl-kō One Brāhman was, onewas cow. Thatcow wheat-field-in myās. Huntun vāńch prāmanēd ā. mārk vāngyōtus gwādum-kwāl-kun. was-grazing. There came Brāhman thatcow drovewheat-field-from. Mār pēsus kē, ' prāmanēd-ē, ninē gāvē mitā tingānē?' Prāmanēd Cow saidthat, 'Brāhman-O, thy father's what did-I-eat?' The-Brahman pēsus. 'hē 'Tārā mā, vāngyōt.' ninak sarāp. 'Hē mā, tadā said, '0 mother, `I-give I-drove-thee.' thee curse.' .0 mother, give tō ninē khusi.' Ki, 'pop, kātkhalnēdē kēd.' Kēd āgyōs. Ā thenthyagreeable.' That, ʻgo, condemned. ass.' AssThat became. prāmanēd kulis nīdis jō pēsus, 'hē mār-ē, nanē khwarkung vängē Brāhman's wifewas who told. cow, bowels mytaking-out ninė khögat-kö porake. Nanē manā kēd hinā āknā?' Ad mār thyneck-on will-throw. Myhusbandass why madest?' That cow mange pēsus, 'nanuk ninē manang mishe vāngus?' Prāmanēd kulis then said, · me thyhusband why drove?' Brāhman's wife said, 'abē ī kēd mēnsō hinā āgar ?' Ā mārug 'ār-kō sunch, "now thisman howmay-become?' 'holy-place-in Thatcow said, orum-khō atyoje; anje mēnsō āgyögar.' Ańje menso agyos. bathing-for take; thereman will-become.' There man

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there lived a Brāhman who had a cow. The cow was once grazing in the wheat-field, and the Brāhman came and drove it off. Said the cow, 'have I eaten thy father's property, O Brāhman?' Said the Brāhman, 'O mother, I drove thee away.' 'I will curse thee.' 'Do as thou likest.' 'Go and become an ass.' So he became an ass.

The Brāhman's wife said, 'O cow, I shall tear my intestines out and throw them on thy neck. Why didst thou make my husband an ass?' The cow answered, 'why did thy husband drive me off?' The Brāhman's wife said, 'now, how can he become a man?' Said the cow, 'take him to bathe in a holy place, then he will become a man.' And it so happened.

MALAYÁLAM.

Malayāļam is spoken by about six million people in Southern India.

Malayāļam or Malayārma (Malayāyma) is usually derived from mala, mountain, and alam, a word derived from āl, to possess. According to Bishop Caldwell the best translation of the word would be 'mountain region.' It accordingly properly applies to the country, and not to the language. The first part of the word is identical with Maλε, whence the pepper comes, in Cosmas Indicopleustes' Christian Topography (about 545 A.D.). It also forms the

language. The first part of the word is identical with $M\alpha\lambda\epsilon$, whence the pepper comes, in Cosmas Indicopleustes' Christian Topography (about 545 A.D.). It also forms the first component in the word Malabar, which apparently occurs for the first time in the Geography of Edrisi (about A.D. 1150). Compare Maler, the name of another Dravidian tribe.

The old Sanskrit name for the Malayālam country was Kērala, which word occurs in Malayālam in the forms Kēralam, Chēralam, and Chēram. An inhabitant of the country is also called $K\bar{e}lan$ or $K\bar{e}lu$, and this word has been compared by Bishop Caldwell with Pliny's $K\eta\rho\rho\beta\delta^5\rho\rho$ s. 'Kērala' occurs as early as in the Aśōka inscriptions (third century B.C.).

The Malayalam language has no separate denomination. The old Aryans did not distinguish it from Tamil, and it is only at a relatively modern date that it has branched off from that form of speech.

Malayāļam is spoken along the western coast from Kasargodu in the north to

Area within which spoken.

Trivandrum in the south. The eastern frontier is the
western Ghats, and on the west the Malayāļam country is
bounded by the Arabian Sea. It covers the southern part of South Canara, the whole of
Malabar and Cochin, with numerous settlers in the adjoining parts of Mysore and Nilgiri,
and, lastly, the greatest part of Travancore. Outside this territory the language is only
spoken by a few settlers.

In South Canara Malayālam is bounded by Tulu. In Coorg it meets Kudagu, and Linguistic Boundaries. its eastern neighbours are Kanarese and Tamil.

Like the rest of the literary Dravidian languages Malayālam has two different forms, one used in old literature, and the other the colloquial form of speech. The literary dialect is still more closely connected with Tamil than the colloquial language. The principal point of difference from Tamil is the greater proportion of Sanskrit loan words. While Tamil has the smallest admixture of such foreign elements among all literary Dravidian languages, Malayālam is the most Sanskritized of them all, and even admits the conjugational forms of that language. Some productions of educated authors have been described as 'pure Sanskrit connected or concluded by a few words in Malayālam,' just as we have Hindōstānī books written almost entirely in Persian.

The colloquial language differs slightly according to locality, but we have no information about the existence of definite Malayālam dialects. Yerava has been returned as such a form of speech from Coorg, and the figures for that dialect have, therefore, been added to those returned for Malayālam. It is, however, possible that Yerava is in reality identical with Yerukala, which has been dealt with above as a dialect of Tamil.

According to the reports of the Censuses of 1891 and 1901 Malayalam was spoken as

Number of speakers. a home language in the following districts:—

						Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
South Cana	ara					191,696	217,856
Malabar						2,484,974	2,624,263
Travancore						2,079,271	2,420,049
Cochin						641,738	715,847
Nilgiris						8,775	4,759
Coorg						11,299	14,039
Mysore						1,500	3,121
				To	FAL	5,419,253	5,999,934
						,	

Malayāļam was, to a small extent, spoken outside the territory where it is a vernacular. The figures given in the Census reports of 1891 and 1901 were as follows:—

								Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Andamans and Nicol	bars.	•						•••	36
Baluchistan								•••	2
Bengal Presidency								•••	67
Berar			·.					•••	11
Bombay Presidency									1,208
Burma								•••	324
Central Provinces .									12
Madras Presidency								2,896	7,267
North-Western Fron	tier							•••	46
Punjab									5
United Provinces .									13
Hyderabad		•		•		•	•	1,243	31
					To	TAL		4,139	9,022

Yerava was returned as the dialect of 2,587 and, in 1901, 13,175 individuals in Coorg. By adding all these figures we arrive at the following total for Malayālam:—

										Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Spoken at	home	by								5,419,253	5,999,934
Spoken ak	road b	У								4,139	9,022
Yerava	•	•	•	•	•	•	·	•	•	2,587	13,175
							To	TAL	r;	5,425,979	6,022,131

According to Dr. Gundert, the history of Malayālam literature commences with the Rāmacharita (13th or 14th century). Before that time the language had been used in a few inscriptions. The oldest Malayālam literature imitated Tamil poetry, and not Sanskrit. Later the literary productions of the Malayālam country came under the spell of the sacred tongue of Aryan India, and the great Sanskrit epics were translated. The classical epoch of Malayālam literature begin with Tuñjattu Eruttachchhan (17th century) who is said to have introduced the modern alphabet. He translated the Mahābhārata and some of the Purāṇas. Towards the end of the 18th century we find Kuñjan Nambiar, the author of several comedies and songs, and perhaps also of some translations from the Sanskrit, such as the Pañchatantra, the Nalacharita, etc.

Malayāļam literature further comprises several folk songs and folk tales, the historical work Kēraļōtpatti, some medical works, etc.

Tipu's invasion dealt a fatal blow to Malayālam poetry, and in modern times. European missionaries and their native converts have been the principal supporters of the vernacular literature of the Malayālam country. For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned under authorities below.

There is no reference to the Malayālam language in old Sanskrit literature. It was included in the Drāvida bhāshā, i.e., Tamil, of Kumārila Bhatta, and did not in fact branch off from that language till a later period. The oldest mention of Malayālam as a separate form of speech seems to be found in Fernão Lopez de Castanheda's Historia do descobrimento e conquista da India. Coimbra, 1551-1561. We here read, Vol. ii, p. 78, 'A lingua dos Gentios de Canara e Malabar.' See Colonel Yule's Hobson-Jobson, under the heading Malabar, where another reference is quoted, taken from A de Gouvea's Jornada do Arcepiscopo de Goa, D. Frey Aleixo de Menezes. Coimbra, 1606.

A Portuguese grammar with a Malayālam vocabulary was published in 1733. See the list of authorities given below. Portuguese and Italian missionaries are stated to have completed a Malayālam dictionary in 1746, based on materials accumulated in the 17th, perhaps even in the 16th, century.

The German Jesuit Johann Ernst Hanleden, who died in 1732, is stated by Fra. Paolino to have written a 'Malabar' grammar, which does not seem to have been printed. Other grammars were written by Pater Clemens, Rome, 1784, and by Robert Drummond, Bombay, 1799, and in 1781 J. Adam Cellarius published some notes on the language. Compare below. In modern times several works on the language have been published, among which Dr. Gundert's grammar is facile princeps. This admirable book is, however, written in Malayalam, and a scientific grammar of the language in a European form of speech is not as yet forthcoming.

The Malayālam alphabet was described in Clemens Peanius' Alphabetum Grando-nico-Malabaricum Samscrudonicum, Rome, 1772.

The first printed book in Malayalam seems to have been the Symbolum Apostolicum, printed in 1713 at an unknown place. Clemens Peanius issued a catechism in 1772, and specimens of the language were afterwards given by Hervas and others. See the list printed below. The Old Testament in Malayalam appeared at Cottayam in 1839-41.

The list of authorities which follows is by no means complete. It only registers some of the principal works dealing with Malayālam:—

AUTHORITIES-

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There are two alphabets used in writing Malayāļam. The old character, the sowritten character.

Called Vaṭṭeṛuttu, is still used by the Mappiḷḷas of
North Malabar. A form of this alphabet, the socalled Kōleṛuttu, is used for keeping records. The modern Malayāḷam alphabet is called
Ārya-eṛuttu, and it was introduced by Tuñjattu Eṛuttachchan in the 17th century. It
contains signs for all the sounds occurring in Sanskrit, and is, accordingly, much more
complete than the Tamil character. The large proportion of Sanskrit words in Malayālam made the introduction of such an alphabet necessary. In real Malayāḷam words,
however, only those signs are used which also occur in the Tamil alphabet.

The modern alphabet consists of the following signs:-

VOWELS.

கு a; கு \bar{a} ; \mathfrak{D} i; ்டை or \mathfrak{D} \mathfrak{I} ; \mathfrak{D} u; \mathfrak{D} u; \mathfrak{B} $r\bar{u}$; \mathfrak{A} e; \mathfrak{A} e; \mathfrak{A} o; \mathfrak{A} o0; \mathfrak{A} 0; \mathfrak{A}

CONSONANTS.

dЪ	ka;	ഖ	kha;	S	ga;	ഘ	gha;	ടെ	'nа;
গ	cha;	ഛ	chha;	æ	ja;	ww	jha;	ഞ	ña ;
s	ţa;	0	ţha ;	a	da;	ເບອ	ḍha;	ണ	ņa;
ത	ta;	Ф	tha;	в	da;	ω	dha;	ന	na;
ئے	p a ;	ഫ	pha;	ബ	ьа;	ß	bha;	ø	ma;
യ	ya;	m	r a ;	ല	la;	വ	va ;		
ശ	śa ;	æ	sha;	m	84;	æ	ha;		
ஒ	ŗa;	<u> 9</u> .	ļa;	0	ŗa.				

The forms of the vowels given above are only used as initials. Secondary forms are used to denote a vowel which follows a consonant. These secondary signs are as follows:—

a (not marked); ā °; i 1; ī °; и 3, Z, or ь; й 2, 3, or ы; ru ч; e s; ē с; o s-э; ō с-э; ei ss; au s-э.

Thus, $\triangle ka$; $\triangle k\bar{a}$; $\triangle k\bar{a$

It is only the signs of u and \bar{u} that present any difficulty.

U takes the following forms:-

- 3 after k and r; thus, os ru.
- 2 after g, chh, j, t, bh, s, and h; thus, $\mathcal{Q} gu$; $\mathcal{Q} tu$.
- o after n and n and under all other consonants. Thus, co nu; § tu.

With \bar{u} are formed \mathcal{L} $h\bar{u}$; \mathcal{L} $r\bar{u}$; \mathcal{L} $n\bar{u}$; \mathcal{L} $kh\bar{u}$, and so on.

The short α is inherent in every consonant which is not combined with the sign of any other vowel. The absence of every vowel after the consonant is indicated as follows,— αk ; α

Note of
$$l$$
; $\varphi^{\circ} r$; $\omega^{\circ} y$; $\alpha^{\circ} m$.

When two or more consonants are put together without any intervening vowel they are combined into one compound letter or written above each other. Some consonants alter their shape when thus combined. The principal cases are as follows:—

y becomes \mathcal{S} ; $r \cup \mathcal{S}$; $l \circ \mathcal{S}$; $v \cdot \mathcal{S}$, when immediately preceded by another consonant. When r is the first of two or more consonants it is written as a short vertical stroke above the line. Thus, \mathcal{S} kya; \mathcal{S} kra; \mathcal{S} kla; \mathcal{S} kva; \mathcal{S} rkkha.

Some of the most frequently used compound consonants where the component parts have been more or less altered are as follows:—

കാ kka; കുന്യു; അൻൻ; ച്ച chcha; ഞാന്യു; ഞെന്നു; ടെ nḍa; തൈ tta; തെ tna; ള dda; നാം, വാ nda; നാം nna; വാ mba, and so forth,

The numeral figures are as follows:-

Malayālam pronunciation in most points agrees with Tamil. Thus double rr is pronounced tt, nr sounds nd, and y is often vulgarly substituted for r; hard and soft consonants interchange as in Tamil; final consonants are often doubled before a following vowel, and so forth. Compare mārram, i.e., māttam, change; ninre, i.e., ninde, thy; mara, vulgarly maya, rain.

As in Tamil, no word can end in a mute consonant, a very short vowel being added. This vowel usually has the form u. In Cochin and among the Syrian Christians this sound is more like an a, and in Northern Malayālam it is so short that it is not usually written.

The principal points in which Malayālam differs from Tamil are the absence of personal terminations of verbs and the larger amount of Sanskrit loan-words. The first attempts in Malayālam poetry were, as has already been remarked, imitations of Tamil. The influence of Sanskrit only got the upper hand at a later period, and has especially been strong during the last two hundred years.

Old Malayāļam uses personal terminations in the conjugation of verbs as in Tamil. The following occur:—

Sing. 1, $\bar{e}n$; 2, \bar{a} ; 3 m., $\bar{a}n$, 3 f., $\bar{a}l$. Plur. 1, $\bar{o}m$; 2, $(\bar{i}r)$; 3 m. and f., $\bar{a}r$.

Thus, cheyyunnēn, I do; cheyyunnāl, she does, and so forth. The third person neuter and the second person plural are rarely used.

The personal terminations began to be dropped after the thirteenth century, and by the end of the fifteenth century they had gone wholly out of use. Remains are, however, said to be found on the Laccadives and among the Moplahs of South Canara. Compare the remarks on the personal terminations in general, in the introduction to the Dravidian Family, pp. 294 and ff.

When the preceding remarks are borne in mind, it is hoped that the short sketch of Malayālam grammar which follows will enable the student to read and understand the Malayālam version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which will be found on pp. 358 and ff. It has been taken from the text published by the Madras Auxiliary Bible Society in 1884. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, compiled from Sir George Campbell's Specimens and Mr. Frohnmeyer's Grammar, will be found on pp. 647 and ff.

For further details the student is referred to the works quoted under Authorities.

MALAYĀĻAM SKELETON GRAMMAR.

I.—NOUNS.—Gender.—Men and gods are masculine; women and goddesses feminine; other nouns are neuter. Number.—The suffix of the plural is gal, or, after \bar{a} , \bar{a} , \bar{b} , bkal. Final m and the suffix gal become $\dot{m}al$. Nouns denoting rational beings also form their plural in ar, $m\bar{a}r$ or $anm\bar{a}r$ (honorific), and avargal or $\bar{a}rgal$ (respectful).

	Masculine an bases	Feminine al bases.	Bases in ā (a), i, i, ei.	Bases ending in am.	Other bases.		
Nom.	magan, son.	magal, daughter.	kei, hand.	maram, tree.	tēļ, scorpion.	is declined	
Acc.	magane.	magaļe.	kayye.	maratt (ine).	tēļine.	like magaļ.	
Instr.	maganāl.	magaļāl.	kayyāl.	marattāl.	tēļināl.		
Dat.	magannu.	magalkku.	keikku.	marattinnu.	tēļinnu.		
Gen.	magan <u>r</u> e.	magaļude.	kayyude.	marattinge.	tēļin r e.		
Loc.	maganil.	magaļil.	kayyil.	marattil.	tēļinil.		
Plur.	makkaļ.	magalgal.	keigaļ.	marannaļ.	tēļugaļ.		
11.—	PRONOUNS.						
	r w	o (instant)	m,	7	Self.		
	I W	e (inclus.). We (exclu	zs.). Thou.	You.			

	ı	Walington	W. (and an)	100		Sel	Self.		
		We (inclus.).	We (exclus.).	Thou.	You.	Sing.	Plur.		
Nom.	ñān.	nām, or nammaļ, etc.	ñaññaļ.	nī.	niññaļ.	tān.	tannaļ, tānnaļ.		
Acc.	enne.	namme.	ñaññale.	ninne.	ninnaļe.	tanne.	tannale.		
Dat.	enikku.	namukku.	ñannalkku.	ninakku.	ninnalkku.	tanikku.	tannaļkki		
Gen.	enre.	nammude.	ñaññalude.	ninge.	ninnalude, ninnade.	tan(re), tanude.	tanna(ļu)		

Gen.	enge.	nammude.	ñannalude.	ninge.	ninna ninna	lude, de.	tan(re), to	anude. tai	nna(ļu)de.
	He.	She.	It.		The	у.			
				Maso.	& fem.	Ne	ut.		
Nom.	avan.	avaļ.	adu.	avar.		ava.	In	the same	way <i>ivan</i> , , which ?—
Acc.	avane.	avaļe.	adine.	avare.		avaye.	í	Ar, who P	mase. and var.—Pro- adjectives
Dat.	avannu.	avaļkku.	adinnu.	avarkku	•	avekku	ε. a	re a, that	; \bar{i} , this ; \bar{e} , They are
Gen.	avanye.	avalude.	adinge:	avaru đ e	•	avayuq			

III .- VERBS .- There are no personal terminations.

The suffixes of the principal parts are, present unnu; past du and i, future um.

The suffix i of the past is used in bases consisting of one long syllable or of two syllables, short or long. Thus, -ākkunnu, I make, past ākki. The suffix du is often changed under the influence of the preceding sounds. It occurs as ttu, ttu, rru, ndu, nnu, nnu, and ññu. Verbs which form their present in kkunnu preceded by a palatal vowel (i, i, e, ë, and ei), take chchu in the past; thus, adikkunnu, I strike, past adichchu.

A.-Regular Verbs-

Infinitive, nalguga, to give ; cheyga or cheyya, to do. Negative, nalgāyga, cheyyāyga.

Relative participles.—Present nalgunna, cheyyunna; Past nalgiya, cheyda; Future nalgum, cheyyum; Negative nalgātta, cheyyātta.

Future Verbal participle.—Nalguvān, cheyvān.

Conjunctive participle.—nalgi, cheydu ; Negative nalgade, cheyyade.

Present tense.—nalgunnu, cheyyunnu.

Past tense.-nalgi, cheydu.

Future .- nalgum, cheyyum.

Imperative.—nalgu or nalguga, plural nalguvin; cheyi or cheyga, plural cheyvin.

The future verbal participle is often used as an infinitive of purpose. It is formed by adding $pp\bar{a}n$ in verbs which form their present in kkunnu. The same verbs add ppin in the plural imperative; thus, irikkunnu, I stay, irippin, stay ye, $p\bar{a}rkkunnu$, I dwell, $p\bar{a}rppin$, dwell ye.

A negative tense, formed from the base by adding \bar{a} , is seldom used; e.g. $v\bar{z}nd\bar{a}$, it is not wanted.

B.—Irregular Verbs—

Base.	Present.	Past	Future.			
āga, be, become.	āgunnu.	āyi.	āgum.			
		A 0				
pō, to go.	pōgunnu.	$p\bar{o}yi$,	pōgum,			
	6 6					
vā, to come.	varunnu.	vannu.	varum.			

Unda, to be, to exist, has a present undu. Other tenses are formed by adding agunnu; thus, undayi, was; undagum, will be.

C.—Auxiliaries. - The negative copula is alla. Illu, does not exist, is added to the various tenses; thus, aran pārkkunnilla, be does not live; nān kondu-vann-illa, I have not brought.

Vēṇam, it is wanted, negative vēṇḍā, is added to the base or the infinitive; thus, var-ēṇam, you must come; kāṇikk-ēṇḍā, don't show. Aruda is used in the same way as vēṇḍā; thus, pōg-aruda, you must not go.

Alum means 'please' and is added to the conjunctive participle ; thus, poyalum, please go.

Passive Voice.—Formed by adding peduga or paduga, to suffer, to the infinitive. Thus, kāna-ppedunnu, is seen; kāna-ppettu, was seen.

Causative Verbs.—Formed by adding the suffixes ttu, present ttunnu; i, vi, or ppi, present ikkunnu. Thus, irukkunnu, sits; iruttunnu, causes to sit; adikkunnu, strikes, adippikkunnu, causes to strike. Other causatives are formed by hardening the final consonant of intransitive bases. Thus, agunnu, becomes; akkunnu, makes.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

MALAYĀLAM.

ഒരു മനുക്കുന്നു രണ്ടു മക്കാം ഉണ്ടായിരുന്നും. അതിൽ ഇളയവൻ അപ്പുനോട്ടു, അപ്പാ, വസ്തുക്കളിൽ എനിക്കു വരേണ്ടുന്ന പങ്കു തരേണമേ, എന്നു പറഞ്ഞു ; അവനും മുതലിനെ അവക്കു പകതി ചെയ്യു. ഏറെ നാ‰കഴിയും മുമ്പെ ഇളയമകൻ സകലവും സചര്രപിച്ചകൊണ്ടു ദൃരഭെശം ം ത്തേക്കു യാത്രപോയി അവിടെ ദുന്നടപ്പായി ജീവിച്ച തന്റെ വസ്ത നാനാവിധമാക്കിക്കളഞ്ഞു. എല്ലാം ചെലവഴിച്ച ശേഷം ആ മേശത്തിൽ കുഠിന ക്ഷാമം ഉണ്ടായിട്ട അവന്നു മുട്ടു വന്നു. തുടങ്ങി. എന്നാറെ അവൻ പോയി ആ മേശത്തിലേ പൌരന്മാരിൽ ഒരുത്തനോടു പററി-െ കൊണ്ടു ആയവൻ അവനെ തൻെറ നിലങ്ങളിൽ പന്നികളെ മേയാൻ അയച്ചു. പ തിന്നുന്ന മരപ്പയറു കൊണ്ട തൻെറ വയറു നിറെപ്പാൻ അവൻ ആഗ്രഹിച്ചു എങ്കിലും ആരും അവന്നു കൊടുത്തില്ല. അപ്പോൾ ബുദ്ധി തെളിഞ്ഞിട്ടു അവൻ പറഞ്ഞു, എൻെറ അപ്പൻെ**റ** എത്ര കൂലിക്കാർ അപ്പം തിന്നു ശേക്ഷിപ്പിക്കുന്നുണ്ടു, ഞാനോ വിശപ്പുകൊണ്ടു നശിച്ചുപോകുന്നു. ഞാൻ എഴുനീററു എൻെറ അട്പൻറെ അടുക്കലേക്കു പോയി അവനോടു, അപ്പാ, ഞാൻ സചശ് ത്തോടും നിന്നോടും പാപം ചെയ്തു, ഇനി നിന്റെ മകൻ എന്നു വിളിക്കപ്പെടുവാൻ യോഗ്ഗനല്ലു, നിൻെറ കൂലിക്കാരിൽ ഒരുത്തനെപോലെ എന്നെ ആക്കിക്കൊളേളന്നു മേ,എന്നു പറയും. എന്നിട്ടു എഴുന്നിററു തന്റെറ അപ്പന്റെറ അടുക്കലേക്കു പോയി ; അവൻ ദൂരത്തുളളപ്പോൾ തന്നെ അപ്പൻ അവനെ കണ്ടു കരളലിഞ്ഞു ഓടിച്ചെന്നു അവന്റെ കഴുത്തിൽ കെട്ടിപ്പിടിച്ചു അവനെ ചുമ്പിച്ചു. മകൻ അവനോടു, അപ്പാ, ഞാൻ സാഗ്ഗത്തോടും നിന്നോടും പാപം ചെയ്യു, ഇനി നിൻെറ മകൻ എന്നു വിളിക്കപ്പെടുവാൻ യോഗ്രനുമല്ല, എന്നു പറഞ്ഞു. എന്നാറെ അപ്പൻ തൻറെ ഭാസരോടു, വേഗം മേല രമായ അങ്കി കൊണ്ടുവന്നു ഇവനെ ഉടുപ്പിപ്പിൻ,കൈക്കു മോതിരവും കാലുക്യക്കു ചെരിപ്പുകളും ഇടുവിപ്പിൻ. നാം ഭക്ഷിച്ച ആനന്ദിക്കും ഈ എന്റെ മകൻ മരിച്ചവനായിരുന്നു തിരിക്കേളയിത്തു, കാണാതെ പോയവനായിരുന്നു, കണ്ടുകിട്ടുകയും ചെയ്യുവല്ലോ,എന്നു പറഞ്ഞും അവർ ആനന്ദിച്ചു തുടങ്ങി.

എന്നാൽ അവൻറെ മുത്തമകൻ വയലിൽ ആയിരുന്നു, ആയവൻ വന്നു വീട്ടിനോടും അടുത്തപ്പോൾ വാള്യവും നൃത്തഘോക്കുങ്ങളും കേട്ട്, ബാല്യക്കാരിൽ ഒരുത്തനെ വിളിച്ചു, ഇതെന്ത്ര എന്നു ചോദിച്ചും. അവൻ അവനോടു പറഞ്ഞു, നിൻറെ സഹോദരൻ വന്നു, നിൻറെ അപ്പൻ അവനെ സൌഖ്യത്തോടെ കിട്ടിയതുകൊണ്ടു വിരുന്നുകഴിച്ചും. അപ്പോൾ അവൻ കോപിച്ചു അകന്യകവാൻ മനസ്സില്ലാഞ്ഞു; എന്നിട്ടു അപ്പൻ പറത്തുവന്നു, അവനോടു അപേക്കിച്ചും എന്നാറെ അവൻ അവനോടു, കണ്ടാലും ഇത്രവക്ഷായി ഞാൻ നിന്നെ സേവിക്കുന്നു, നിൻറെ കല്പന ഒരു നാളം ലംഘിച്ചതുമില്ല; എന്നാൽ എൻറെ ചങ്ങാതികളുമായി ആനന്ദിക്കേടത്തിന്നു നി ഒരിക്കലും എനിക്കു ഒർ ആട്ടിൻകുട്ടി തന്നിട്ടില്ല. വേശ്രമാരോടു കൂടി നിൻറെ മതൽ തിന്നുകളുത്തെ ഈ നിൻറെ മകൻ വന്നപ്രോഴെക്കോ അവന്നായി വിരുന്നുകഴിച്ചവല്ലോ, എന്നാ ഉത്തരം ചൊല്ലി. അപ്പോൾ അവൻ അവനോടു പറഞ്ഞു, മകനേ, നി എപ്പോഴും എന്നോടു കൂടെ ആകുന്നുവല്ലോ; എനിക്കുള്ള എല്ലാം നിൻറത്ര ആകുന്നും. എന്നാൽ ഈ നിൻറെ സഹോദരൻ മരിച്ചവനായിരുന്നും, തിരികേ ഉയിർത്ര് ; കാണ്യാതെ പോയേവനായിന്ദ്രന്നും, കണ്ടുകിട്ടിയിരിക്കയാൽ നാം ആനന്ദിച്ചു സന്തോക്കിക്കേണ്ടത്തും ആകുന്നും.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY

MALAYĀLAM.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Adil Oru manushyannu randu makkal und-ay-irunnu. ilayayan two having-become-were. One man-to sons That-in the-younger 'appā, vastu-kkalil enikku appanōdu, var-ēndunna pangu tar-ēnam-ē. ·the-father-to, goods-in father, me-to coming share give-should, parannu, avan-um mudaline avarkku pagudi-cheydu. Ēre ennu said. he-and them-to share-made. having-said property Many kariyum mumbe ilaya magan sakalavum svarūpichchu-kondu nāl passing before younger son allhaving-collected-for-himself dūra dēśattēkku vātra pōyi avide durnnadapp-āyi iīvichchu bad-conduct-becoming country-to journey having-gone there having-lived far nānāvidham ākki-kkaļañnu. Ellām chelavarichcha śēsham vastu spent after that his property in-various-ways. made-wasted. Alldēśattil kathina kshāmam undāy-ittu avannu muttu vannu tudanni. coming famine having-become him-to want . began. country-in severe ā dēśattil-ē Ennāre avan pōyi : pauranmāril oruttanodu country-in-being citizens-among having-gone that one-with Then he. āv-avan avane tanre nilannalil pannigale mēypān parri-kkondu his fields-in to-feed joining-himself having-become-he himpigs Pannigal tinnunna marappayaru kondu tanre vayaru nireppān avachchu. belly to-fill Pigshusk taking his sent. eating avan āgrahichchu engilum ār-um avannu kodutt-illa. Appol buddhi Then sense wished though him-to gave-not. he anybody etra : kūlikkār appam avan parannu, enre e appanre teliññittu breadhaving-cleared said, father-of how-many servantshe 'my nasichchu-pogunnu. viśappu kondu tinnu śēshippikkunn-undu ñān-ō perishing-go. having-eaten saving-are I-but hunger taking Nān adukkalēkku pōyi avanodu, "appā, ñān erunirru enre appanre I "father, having-arisen my father's presence-to going him-to, ninre ennu svarggattod-um ninnod-um pāpam cheydu. Ini magan heaven-to-and son saying thee-to-and did. Hereafter thy vilikka-ppeduvān põle enne yōgyan-alla. kūlikkāril oruttane Ninre to-be-called likefit-man-am-not. Thy servants-among one me ākki-kkoļļ-ēņam-ē," erunirru parayum.' Enn-ittu ennu having-arisen having-made-to-take-is-wanted," shall-say. Having-said saying

tanre appanre adukkalēkku pōyi. Avan dürattull-appol tanne his father's presence-to went. Hefar-being-time-at indeed: appan avane kandu karal-aliññu ōdi-chchennu avanre karuttil kettithe-father him heart-melting running-going seeing hisneck-on havingppidichchu avane chumbichehu. Magan avanodu, 'appā, ñān attached-seized him kissed. The-son him-to. father, I svarggattod-um ninnöd-um pāpam cheydu. Ini ninre magan heaven-to-and thee-to-and sindid.Hereafter thyson ennu vilikka-ppeduvān yogyan-um-alla,' ennu . paraññu. Ennare saying to-be-called fit-man-at-all-am-not, saying said. Butappan tanre dāsarōdu, 'vēgam mēl-ttaram-āva angi konduthe-father his slaves-to. 'quickly high-class-being robe having-takenvannu ivane uduppippin, keikku mōdirav-um kālugaļkku cherippuhaving-come him dress-ye, hand-on ring-and feet-on shoesgal-um iduvippin. Nām bhakshichchu ānandikka. Ī enre magan and put-ye.Weeating shall-feast. Thismyson marichchayan āy-irunnu, tirigē uyirttu; kānāde pōyavan. āydead-man having-become-is. againrevived; not-seeing gone-man havingkandu-kittu-gayum cheydu-v-allo? ennu parannu. Avar anandichchubecome-is, seeing-finding made-is-it-not?' saying said. They feasting tudanni. began.

Ennäl avanre mūtta magan vayalil āy-irunnu, āy-avan vannu Now his elder sonfield-in had-been, having-become-he coming. vittinodu adutt-appol vādyav-um nritta-ghōshannal-um kēttu balya-kkaril house-to coming-when music-and dancing-sounds-and hearing servants-among oruttane vilichchu, 'id-endu?' ennu chōdichchu. Avan avanōdu parannu. calling, one 'this-what?' saying asked. He him-to said. 'ninge sahōdaran vannu ninge appan avane saukhyattöde kittiyadu-kondu 'thy brother coming thyfather him healthy finding-on-account-of virunnu karichchu.' Appol avan köpichchu agam buguyān manass-illāññu, feast made.' Then he getting-angry houseto-enter mind-was-not, ennițțu appan purattu vannu avanōdu apēkshichchu. Ennare having-said the-father out having-come him-with entreated. Butavan avanodu, 'kand alum, itra varsham-āyi ñān ninne hehim-to, see-please, so-many years-having-become I theesēvikkunnu. Ninge kalpana oru nāļ-um langhichchad-um illa, ennāl serve. Thyorder one day-even transgressing-even was-not, but channātigaļum-āyi enre ānandikk-ēndadinnu nī orikkal-um friends-with-having-become my to-feast-wanted-being-for thou once-even enikku ättinkutti ortann-itt-illa. Vēśyamārodu. kūdi ninre mudal me-to one kidgavest-not. Harlots-with joining thy property

tinnu kalañña ninre ī magan vann-appörekkö avann-āyi virunnu eating having-wasted thisthy80n coming-when him-for feastkarichehuv-allo? ennu uttaram cholli. Appōl avan avanōdu parannu. madest-is-it-not?' saying replyspoke. Then he him-to said, 'magan-ē, nī eppōṛ-um ennödu kūde āgunnuv-allō?' enikk-ulladu 'son-O, thoualwaysme-with art-is-it-not? ' me-to-being-that together ellām ningēdu āgunnu. Ennāl ninre marichchavan ī sahōdaran allthineis. Butthisthy brotherdead-man hadirunnu tirigė uyirttu; kānāde pōyavan āy-irunnu, kandu-kiţţiy-irikkayāl become again revived; not-seeing had-become, seeing-reaching-being-because goer $n\bar{a}m$ ānandichchu santőshikk-ēṇḍad-allō? āgunnu.' wehaving-been-merry to-feast-wanted-being-is-it-not? is.

KANARESE.

Kanarese is the language of the north-western part of the Madras Presidency with the adjoining districts. The number of speakers may, roughly, be estimated at ten million people.

The name Kanarese simply means 'the language of Kanara.' Kanara is derived from an older form Kannada or Karnāda. This latter word is supposed to mean 'black country' from the Dravidian words kar, black, and nādu, country. This explanation is due to Dr. Gundert, and was adopted by Bishop Caldwell as 'a term very suitable to denote the "black cotton soil," as it is called, of the plateau of the Southern Dekhan.' The Sanskrit form of the word, which occurs as early as the sixth century A.D., in Varāhamihira's Bṛihatsamhitā, is Karṇāṭa or Karṇāṭaka, which form seems to be Sanskritized from a Prākrit Kannāda, or Kannāṭa. The word was apparently introduced into North Indian literature through the Paiśāchī Prakrit. It occurs in Sōmadēva's Kathāsaritsāgara which is based on an old, now apparently lost, work in Paiśāchī, the Bṛihatkathā of Gunādhya.

The term, according to Bishop Caldwell, was at first a generic denomination of the plateau of the Southern Dekhan. He goes on to remark—

'Karnātaka has now got into the hands of foreigners, who have given it a new and entirely erroneous application. When the Muhammadans arrived in Southern India they found that part of it with which they first became acquainted—the country above the Ghauts, including Mysore and part of Telingāna—called the Karnātaka country. In course of time, by a misapplication of terms, they applied the same name, the Karnātaka, or Carnatic, to designate the country below the Ghauts, as well as that which was above. The English have carried the misapplication a step further, and restricted the name to the country below the Ghauts, which never had any right to it whatever. Hence the Mysore country, which is properly the Carnatic, is no longer called by that name by the English; and what is now geographically termed "the Carnatic" is exclusively the country below the Ghauts, on the Coromandel coast, including the whole of the Tamil country, and the district of Nellore only in the Telugu country. The word Karnātaka was further corrupted by the Canarese people themselves into Kannada or Kanara, from which the language is styled by the English "Canarese"."

The two forms Karnāta and Kannada are both found in Kanarese literature so early as about 1200 A.D. Kannadam occurs still earlier, in a Tanjore inscription of the 11th century. There does not seem to be any foundation for Bishop Caldwell's assumption that this latter form is a corruption of the former. It seems to be more probable that Karnāta is the Sanskritized form of a Prakrit Kannāda, and that this latter is the older one. If it occurred in the original upon which Sōmadēva's work is based, it can only have had the form Kannāda or Kannāda, and this form must then have existed in the first centuries of our era.

Kanarese is the principal language of Mysore and the adjoining parts of Coimbatore,

Area within which spoken.

Salem, Anantapur, and Bellary. The frontier line thence
goes northwards, through the dominions of His Highness the
Nizam, as far as Bidar, where it turns almost due west on to about the 78th degree, and,
further, southwards so as to include the south-eastern portion of Jat and Daphlapur.

Kanarese is also spoken in the extreme south-east of Satara, in Taluka Tasgaon; to some

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extent in the Aundh State of the Satara Agency; and in the South of Belgaum, and, further to the west, in Kolhapur almost so far west as the town of Kolhapur. The line thence turns southwards following the Ghats to about Honawar, where it goes down to the sea. In North Kanara, Kanarese is the official language all over the district. It is the principal language of South Kanara, with the exception of the southernmost corner. The frontier line thence coincides with the southern frontier of Mysore. Kanarese dialects are also spoken in the Nilgiris, and the language has, lastly, been brought by immigrants to Madura and to the Central Provinces.

Kanarese is bounded on the north and west by Marāṭhī and its dialect Kōnkanī, on the east by Telugu and Tamil and on the south by Tamil, Koḍagu, and Tulu.

The dialectic differences within the Kanarese territory are, to judge from the materials available, comparatively small. The most important dialect is Badaga, spoken in the Nilgiris by the so-called Badagas or Burghers. It is a more ancient form than ordinary Kanarese, and in several points agrees with the language of old literature. Another Kanarese dialect of the Nilgiri Hills is that spoken by the Kurumbas. It does not seem to differ much from ordinary Kanarese. The same, or a similar, tribe is called Kurumvār in Chanda. Their dialect shows some traces of the influence of the neighbouring Telugu. Other dialectic varieties are apparently unimportant. The pronunciation differs to some extent in Bijapur. The dialect of the Golars of the Central Provinces in this respect often agrees with the language of Bijapur. In other cases it has preserved old forms, like the dialect of the Badagas.

The bulk of the people whose home-tongue is Kanarese live outside the territory included in the Linguistic Survey. The Census reports of 1891 and 1901 have, therefore, been consulted in order to ascertain the number of speakers. From the various districts of the Bombay Presidency estimates have been forwarded for the use of this Survey, as follows:—

77									\mathbf{E}	stimated number.	Census of 1901
Kanara	•	•	•	•						240,000	259,244
Sholapur		•								56,000	51,399
Akalkot	•									38,C00	45,427
Satara	•									19,000	14,050
Satara A		7 .								6,500	4,246
Belgaum										615,000	648,470
Kolhapur		•								159,000	153,058
Southern		atha	Jaghirs							361,500	374,520
Dharwar										861,000	916,039
Sawanur		•	•							10,800	11,793
Bijapur		•								652,939	614,458
						To	FAL			3,019,739	3,092,704
								-			0,002,102

Kanarese was spoken as a vernacular in the following districts of the Madras-Presidency and feudatories:—

Cuddapah Kurnool	:	:	:	:	:			:	Census of 1891. 10,617 8,532	Census of 1901. 8,014 7,164
					Ca	rried o	ver		19,149	15,178

							C	ensus of 1891.	Census of 1901.
			B	rought	forw	ard		19,149	15,178
Bellary .								518,585	541,274
Anantapur								79,486	89,190
North Arcot								31,483	29,599
Salem .								139,414	153,361
Coimbatore								238,114	260,607
Nilgiris .								14,125	13,219
South Canara								213,551	215,395
Sandur .								7,232	7,098
					To	TAL		1,261,139	1,324,921

Kanarese is the principal language of Mysore and is also spoken by many people in His Highness the Nizam's Dominions and in Coorg. By adding the Census figures for all these districts we arrive at the following total of people who speak Kanarese within the territory where it is a vernacular:—

								Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Bombay	y Pr	esider	ıcy	•				3,019,739	3,092,704
Madras	Pre	siden	зу .					1,261,139	1,324,921
Nizam's	D ₀	minio	ns.					1,451,046	1,562,022
Mysore		•	•					3,655,976	4,044,076
Coorg	•						•	76,115	76,608
			11			T	OTAL	9,464,015	10,100,331

Kanarese has been brought by immigrants to other districts of India. In Madura the Kanarese element is very strong (104,641 in 1891 and 114,091 in 1901), in other districts the language is only spoken by comparatively small numbers of speakers. Local estimates, for the use of this Survey, have been forwarded from Nagpur and Bhandara. The rest of the figures which follow have been supplied from the Census reports.

The number of speakers of Kanarese in those districts where it cannot be considered as the local language were as follows:—

									Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Andamans and Nicoba	rs .									282
Assam										3
Bengal Presidency									•••	14
Berar										1,036
Bombay Presidency		·		1		•	•	. •	•••	•
Burma			•	•	•	•	•	•	•••	4,621
	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•••	34
Central Provinces .	•	•							1,810	1,233
Madras Presidency		:							200,338	211,401
Punjab										5
United Provinces .		•							Training.	187
Baroda.				-		•	•	. •	•••	477(7)
	•		•	. •	•	•	. •	*	•••	46
Contral India .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		254
						To	TAL		202,148	219,116

By adding these figures to those given above we may estimate the number of speakers of Kanarese as follows:—

Kanarese sp Kanarese sp	oken as a vernac oken abroad by	ular •	by •	•	:	:	:	9,464,015 202,148	Census of 1901. 10,100,331 219,116
10 020			٤			To	TAL	9,666,163	10,319,447

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To this total must, finally, be added the number of speakers of the minor Kanarese dialects, as follows:—

								Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Kanarese p	roper							9,666,163	10,319,447
Badaga					•	•		30,656	34,229
Kurumba								10,399	11,371
Gōlarī .								3,614	3,468
			GR	AND	TOT	ΑL		9,710,832	10,368,515

Kanarese literature is known to extend over a considerable period. The oldest specimen of Kanarese is, according to Professor Hultzsch, contained in a Greek play preserved in a Papyrus of the second century A.D. The oldest known works go back to at least the tenth century A.D. The origin of Kanarese literature is due to the labours of the Jains, and the first literary works are largely influenced by Sanskrit. Three periods are usually distinguished in Kanarese literature.

- 1. Ancient Kanarese, from at least the 10th to the middle of the 13th century. The principal productions were scientific works on prosody and grammar, based on Sanskrit originals, sectarian works, and poetical works in a highly artificial style. This literature is written in an old dialect which is said to be quite uniform and to show an extraordinary amount of polish and refinement. It is full of Sanskrit loan-words, and differs from the modern dialect in phonology and inflexional system. The ancient dialect was occasionally also used in literary works at a later period, and such productions are usually included in the ancient literature. Among the principal authors we may mention Pampa, who wrote an Adipurana (A.D. 941); Argala, the author of the Chandraprabhapurāṇa (A.D. 1189) and probably also of the Līlāvatīprabandha (about A.D. 1200); Nāgavarman, the author of rhetorical works such as the Kāvyāvalōkana and the Chhandas (about A.D. 1200); the grammarian Kēśirāja, whose Sabdamanidarpana (about A.D. 1225) is the classical Kanarese grammar; Shadakshara, the author of the Rājaśēkharavilāsa (A.D. 1657), the Vrishabhēndravijaya (A.D. 1671), and the Sabaraśankaravilāsa (about A.D. 1680), and others. Almost all the works belonging to this period are written in verse.
- 2. Mediæval Kanarese, from the middle of the 13th to the end of the 15th century. The ancient dialect is now changed. The old rules of inflexion and syntax are no longer strictly observed, and new forms are introduced. Some of the sounds of the old language have become obsolete, and many new Sanskrit words are introduced. The dialect continued to be used in several works even after the 15th century. The literature of this dialect is mainly contained in the poetry of the Śaiva and Lingāyata sects. It is written in verse. Among the principal works we may mention Sōmēśvara's Śataka (about A.D. 1300); Bhīma's Basavapurāna (A.D. 1369); Kumāravyāsa's Bhārata (about A.D. 1508); the Dāsapadas, popular songs by 'Krishna's servants' (from about A.D. 1530); Kumāravālmīki's Rāmāyana (about A.D. 1590); Lakshmīśa's Jaimini-Bhārata (about A.D. 1760), and so forth.
- 3. Modern Kanarese.—The literature of the modern dialect of Kanarese can be traced back to about the beginning of the 16th century. From that time we find a large proportion of Vaishnava poetry, still mainly written in a dialect which agrees with that of the second period. Prose, also, begins to be developed. We find several adaptations of Sanskrit prose works such as the Panchatantra, the Vētālapanchavimsati, etc. The

language of the courts of justice and of the ordinary business life is slightly different and freely borrows from Marāṭhī and Hindōstānī. Abstract, religious, and scientific terms are largely borrowed from Sanskrit, and the phonology and the inflexional system gradually assumes the modern form.

A full account of Kanarese literature cannot be given in this place, Kanarese not being one of the languages properly falling within the scope of the Linguistic Survey. Further information will be found in the works by Messrs. Kittel and Rice, mentioned under Authorities, below.

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The alphabet used in writing Kanarese is closely related to the Telugu character.

Another alphabet, the so-called Hala Kannada or Old Kanarese, is used in Sanskrit inscriptions in the Marātha country and does not concern us in the present connexion. It is sufficient to draw attention to its existence. It has nothing to do with the old dialect of Kanarese literature.

The modern Kanarese alphabet consists of the following signs :-

Vowels.

e a;	$oldsymbol{ec{a}}$;	æ i;	ਲਾਂ ₹;	oou;	m \bar{u} ;	ಋ 💤 ;
ಶೂ ṛī;	ა e;	ప ē;	బం;	ზ ō;	≈ ai;	छ au∙
			~			
			~			

CONSONANTS.

$\forall ka$	D kha	95	ಗ ga	ಘು gha		ස na
ಚ cha	ಳ cha		ಜ ja	ಝ jha		∞ ña
ಟ ta	ಠ tha		ಡ da	ಡ dha		eo na
ತ ta	ಥ tha		ದ da	다 dha		ನ na
ವ pa	ಭ pha		ಬ ba	 ಭ bha	_	ಮ <i>ma</i>
ಯ ya	ਰ ra		∞ ŗa	o la		ವ va
र्छ ईa	 ಷ sha		ಸ ಕಷ	ಹ ha	9	
₹ la	es <u>l</u> a					

The letters x_i , $x_$

The forms of the vowels given above are those used in the beginning of a word. When subjoined to a consonant the vowels take the following forms:—

 $a \text{ (not expressed)}; \bar{a}$ \bar{a} ; i, \bar{i} , \bar

Thus, $\forall ka$; $\forall k\bar{a}$; $\forall k\bar{a$

The irregular forms are, as will be seen from the instances, nearly the same as in Telugu.

When two or more consonants come together without any intervening vowel, they are combined in such a way that only the first is written on the line, the other ones

being subjoined under it. Thus, $\exists \mathcal{S}$ paina; $\exists \mathcal{S} \mathcal{S}$ tāldu. The subscribed forms are usually easily recognizable. A few consonants, however, have a separate form when subjoined under another letter, thus:—

Initial.	Secondary.	Initial.	Secondary.
ತ ta	_	ಯ ya	8
ನ na	ع	ਰ ra	ン:
ವು $\it ma$	હ	e la	· ·
		ವ va	

Thus, ಸಮಸ್ತ್ samasta ; ಪತ್ನ್ನಿ patni ; ಯುಗ್ನ yugma ; ಹ್ಯಾಗೆ hyāge ; ಪ್ರಾಣ prāṇa ; ಆಹಾದ āhlāda.

The short vowel a is inherent in the initial form of every consonant. It is cut off by placing the sign f on the upper part of the consonant. Thus, f f f, at f f, etc.

The sign \circ called *visarga*, denotes an aspiration. It is only used in Sanskrit words. It is transliterated h.

The sign \circ , called anusvāra, bindu or sonne, is commonly written instead of the class nasals. It is pronounced and transliterated as n before gutturals, as \tilde{n} before palatals, as n before cerebrals, as n before dentals, and as m before labials. In other cases it is pronounced as an m and has been transliterated \tilde{m} .

The characters for the numerals are as follows:-

C	٩	2	8	26	ھ	2	~	٦	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

The Kanarese alphabet is strictly phonetical, and the pronunciation of the language Pronunciation. therefore calls for only a few remarks.

The vowels are pronounced in the Continental manner. The short final vowel in words such as *maravu*, a tree, is shorter than an ordinary vowel, not having more than about half the ordinary length. In the local dialects short final vowels are often interchanged or dropped altogether.

E and o are pronounced as ye and wo, respectively, at the beginning of a word. When the word is closely united with the preceding one, however, the y and w are dropped.

Ai and au are only a convenient way of writing ay (ey) and avu (ava). They are no proper diphthongs. Ai is pronounced as an ey.

The Anusvāra is written instead of the class nasal before mute consonants. In other cases it is pronounced as an m.

When the first part of a compound word ends in a vowel the initial hard consonant of the second component is softened. Thus, mara-kālu, wooden leg, becomes mara-gālu.

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Old Kanarese and the Badaga dialect have two cerebral sounds which have disappeared in the modern dialect, viz., r and l. R has been replaced by r and l, and l by l.

There are no certain traces of the harmonic sequence in Kanarese. The final vowel of verbal forms changes, but it is impossible to find any sufficient reason for the fact. Thus, $m\bar{a}dntt\bar{e}ne$, I do; $m\bar{a}d\bar{e}nu$, I may do.

The accent rests on the first syllable. In compound words a secondary stress is put on the first syllable of the second component.

It is hoped that the short sketch of Kanarese grammar which follows will enable the student to understand the forms occurring in the specimens. For further particulars the works quoted above under Authorities should be consulted.

KANARESE SKELETON GRAMMAR.

I.—NOUNS.—Gender.—Words signifying gods and male human beings are masculine, those denoting goddesses and women are feminine. Other words are neuter. The natural gender may be distinguished by prefixing gandu, male, and hennu, female; thus, gandu kūsu, boy; hennu kūsu, girl.

Number.—Masculine and feminine a-bases, and many feminine nouns ending in i, ī, and e, form their plural by adding aru; nouns of relationship add andiru, other nouns gaļu. Thus, sēvak-aru, servants; strī-yaru, women; app-andiru, fathers; ūru-gaļu, towns. Note magu, child, plural makkaļu. An honoriūc plural is formed by adding avaru to the genitive singular. Thus, tāyiy-avaru, mother.

Declension.—There is a slight difference between (1) a-bases, e.g. sēvaka, servant, feminine sēvakaļu; mara, tree; (2) i, ī, e, and ai-bases, e.g. tande, father; kuri, sheep; (3) u-bases, e.g. guru, teacher; ūru, town.

Sing.		κ.					
Nom.	sēvaka(nu).	sēvakaļu.	maravu.	tandeyu.	kuriyu.	guruvu.	ūru.
Acc.	sēvakana(nnu).	sēvakaļa(nnu).	mara(vannu).	tandeya(nnu).	kuriya(nnu).	guruva(nnu).	ūra, ūrannu.
Dat.	sēvaka(ni)ge.	sēvakaļige.	marakke.	tandege.	kurige.	guruvige.	ūrige.
Gen.	sēvakana.	sēvakaļa.	marada.	tandeya.	kuriya.	guruva, guru- vina.	ūra, ūrina.
Plur.	sēva.	karu.	maragaļu.	tandeyand i ru.	kurigaļu.	gurugaļu.	ūrugaļu.

The plural is regularly inflected; thus, sēvakara, of the servants; ūrugaļige, to the towns.

Akka, elder sister; amma, lady, and avva, lady, form their singular by adding nu, and suffix andiru in the plural; thus, akkananuu, the sister (case of the object); ammandiru, the ladies.

Postpositions are added to the genitive. Thus, guruv-inda, by the teacher; ūrin-alli, in the town. Ōsara, in order to; inta, than, etc., are added to the dative.

Adjectives precede the noun they qualify. Comparison is expressed by adding the postpositions inta, than; alli, among, etc., to the compared noun. Thus, avanu nanag-inta doddavanu, he me-than great; yellar-alli chikka, all-among small, smallest.

II .- PRONOUNS .- There is only one form of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person.

	I.	Thou.	He.	She.	That.
Sing.	, .				
Nom.	$n\bar{a}(nu)$.	nī(nu).	ava(nu).	avalu.	adu.
Acc.	nanna(nnu).	ninna(nnu).	avana(nnu).	avala(nau).	adannu.
Dat.	nanage.	ninage.	avanige.	avalige.	adakke.
Gen.	nanna.	ninna	avana.	avaļa.	adara.
Plur.				1	
Nom.	nāvu.	nīvu.		waru.	avu(gaļu).
Acc.	namma(nnu).	nimma(nnu).	. ava	ıra(nnu).	av(ugaļ)annu.
Dat.	namage.	nimage.		varige.	avugaļige, avakke
Gen.	namma.	nimma.		avara.	avugaļa.

In the same way tānu, self (as nānu, I); ivanu, this (fem. ivalu, n. idu); yāvanu, what man i yāru, who (m. and fem., as avaru); ishtaru, so many; ishtu, so much; numerals; compounds such as māduvavanu, one who makes (fem. māduvavalu, n. māduvadu); karidu, a black thing, etc.

ātanu, he ; ā-ke, she, are regular nouns ; plural ātagaļu, ākeyaru.

yënu, what? acc. yënannu ; dat. yëtakke ; gen. yëtara.

Adjective pronouns are \bar{a} , that ; $\bar{\imath}$, this ; $y\bar{\epsilon}$, which? They are not declined.

III.—VERBS.—First Conjugation.—Verbs ending in u; mādu, make.

Infinitives.-Māda, mādalu, mādalikke.

Verbal participles.-Present, mādutta. Conjunctive, mādi. Negative, mādade.

Relative participles.—Present and Future, māduva. Past, mādida. Negative, mādada.

Nouns of agency and action.—Formed by adding the demonstrative pronoun avanu, fem. avalu, n. adu, to relative participles. Thus, māduv-avanu, he who makes; mādid-avalu, she who made; mādad-avaru, they who do not make; māduv-adu, the act of making; mādiddu, the act of having made; negative mādaddu. Mādōna is often used instead of māduvadu.

		Present.	Past.	1st future.	2nd future.	Negative.	Imperative
	1.	māḍuttēne.	māḍide(nu).	māḍuve(nu).	mādiyēnu.	māde(nu).	māḍali.
	2.	māduttī(yē).	māḍidi.	māduvi.	mādī(yē).	māde.	mādu.
	3 m.	māduttāne.	mādida(nu).	māduva(nu).	mādiyānu.	māda(nu).	h
	3 f.	māduttāle.	māḍidaļu.	māduvaļu.	mādiyāļu.	mādaļu.	
	3 n.	māḍuttade.	māḍitu.	māduvadu.	mādītu.	māḍadu.	māḍali.
Plur.	1.	māduttēve.	mādidevu.	māduvevu.	mādiyēvu.	mādevu.	J
	2.	māduttīri.	māḍidiri.	māduviri.	mādīri.	mādari.	$m\vec{a}di(ri)$.
	3 m. & f.	māduttāre.	mādidaru.	māḍuvaru.	mādiyāru.	māḍaru.	7
	3 n.	māduttave.	mādidavu.	māduvavu.	mādiyāvu.	māḍavu.	māḍali.

Present definite.—Māduttiddhēne, etc. Imperfect, māduttiddenu, etc. Perfect, mādidhēne, etc., or mādēne; 2 mādī; 3 m. mādyāne; 3 f. mādyāļe; 3 n. mādiyade, etc.

Second Conjugation .- Verbs ending in i, e, or ai ; kare, call.

Infinitive.—Kareya, kareyalu, kareyalikke.

Verbal participles.-Present, kareyutta. Conjunctive, karedu. Negative, kareyade.

Relative participles.—Present and Future, kareyuva. Past, kareda. Negative, kareyada.

Other forms as in the first conjugation. Thus, kareyuttēne, I call; karedenu, I called; kareyuvenu, I shall call; karedēnu, I may perhaps call; kareyenu, I do not, did not, or shall not, call.

Causal verbs .- Formed by adding isu to the final consonant of the base; thus, madisu, cause to make.

Reflexive verbs.—Formed by adding the verb kollu, to take, to the conjunctive participle; thus, hañchi-kolluttāre, they divide among themselves.

Passive voice.—Formed by adding the verb paqu, to experience, to the verbal noun in lu, the final u being dropped. Thus, kareyal-paquttēne, I am called.

Irregular verbs.—Iru, be exist, becomes iddu in the conjunctive participle, and idda in the past relative participle. The past tense is accordingly iddenu (third person singular neuter ittu), and the second future iddēnu, etc. The present tense is iruttēne, but also hēne: 2 hī: 3 m. hāne: 3 f. hāļe: 3 n. ade, ide: plural 1 hēve: 2 hīri: 3 hāre, n. ave, ive. By adding these forms to the conjunctive participle a compound present is formed; thus, iddhēne, I am, etc. No neuter forms belong to this present.

Āgu, become, and kogu, go, form their past relative participles irregularly, āda and koda, respectively. The past tenses are accordingly ādenu (3 sing. n. āyitu) and kodenu (3 sing. n. koyitu), etc.

Annu, say, takes amba or annuva in the present and future relative participle. Accordingly first future annuvenu, etc., or ambenu, etc.

About hundred verbs form their conjunctive participle, and accordingly their past relative participle, their past tense, and their second future irregularly. Such are,—

Base.	Conj. part.	Base.	Conj. part.	Base.	Conj. part.	Base.	Conj. part.
annu, say.	andu.	yēļu, arise. kāņu, see.	yeddu. kaņģu.	kollu, take.	kondu.	baru, come.	bandu. biţţu.
i, give.	ittu.	kūru, sit.	kūtu.	tinnu, eat.	tindu.	bīļu, fall.	bidāu.
yennu, say.	yendu.	kodu, give.	kottu.	nillu, stay.	nintu.	sā, die.	sattu.

Defective and auxiliary verbs.—Apa, able, negative ārade, has one tense, āpenu, etc., neg. ārenu, etc. Relative part. āpuva, neg. ārada. It is added to the infinitive in lu; thus, māḍal-āpanu, he can do.

Ballenu, I know, is added to the infinitive in a: thus, mada-ballevu, we know to do. The corresponding negative ariyenu, etc., and ollenu, I will not, are added to the infinitive in lu.

Bēku, it is wanted; bēḍa, it is not wanted; bahudu or kūḍuvadu, it is allowed, neg. bāradu or kūḍadu, are added to the infinitive ending in a. Thus, māḍa-bēḍa, don't do.

Untu, there is, is indeclinable. It has a relative participle ulla. The corresponding negative is illa, conjunctive participle illade, relative participle illade.

Alla, is not, is a copula, and implies negation of quality. Thus, adu nannad-alla, that is not mine. But nanage kelas-illa, to-me work-is-not, I have no work.

Participles.—Interrogative,— \bar{a} , \bar{c} , \bar{o} , $y\bar{c}n\bar{o}$. Emphatic, \bar{c} , \bar{u} , (even), Subjunctive, re, if; $r\bar{u}$, though, added to the past relative participle; thus, $\bar{a}dare$, if it were so, but.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

SPECIMEN I.

(Madras Aux. B. S., 1867.)

ಬಬ್ಬ ವುನುವ್ಯನಿಗೆ ಇಬ್ಬರು ಮಕ್ಕಳದ್ದರು। ಅವರಲ್ಲಿ ಚಿಕ್ಕವನು ತಂದೆಗೆ, ತಂದೆಯೇ, ಆಸ್ತಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ನನಗೆ ಬರತಕ್ಕ ಪಾಲನ್ನು ನನಗೆ ಕೊಡು, ಅಂದಾಗ, ಬದುಕನ್ನು ಅವರಿಗೆ ಪಾಲಿಟ್ಟನು | ಕೆಲವು ದಿನಗಳ ವೇಲೆ ಚಿಕ್ಕ ಮಗನು ಎಲ್ಲಾ ಕೂಡಿಸಿಕೊಂಡು, ದೂರದೇಶಕ್ಕೆ ಹೊರಟು, ಅಶ್ಲಿ ದುಂದುಗಾರನಾಗಿ ಬದುಕಿ, ತನ್ನ ಆಸ್ತಿಯನ್ನು ಹಾಳುಮಾಡಿಬಿಟ್ಟನು | ಅವನು ಎಲ್ಲಾ ವೆಚ್ಚ್ ಮಾಡಿದ ಮೇಲೆ, ಆ ದೇಶದಲ್ಲಿ ಘೋರವಾದ ಬದೆ ಉಂಟಾಗಿ, ಅವನು ಕೊರತೆ ಪಡಲಾರಂಭಿಸಿದನು | ಆಗ ಹೋಗಿ, ಆ ದೇಶಸ್ಥ ರಲ್ಲಿ ಒಬ್ಬನನ್ನು ಹೊಂದಿಕೊಂಡನು | ಇವನು ಅವನನ್ನು ಹಂದಿಗಳನ್ನು ಮೇಯಿಸುವದಕ್ಕೆ ತನ್ನ ಹೊಲಗಳಿಗೆ ಕಳುಹಿಸಿದನು | ಹೀಗಿರಲಾಗಿ ಹಂದಿಗಳು ತಿನ್ನುವ ಹಿಂಡಿಯಿಂದ ತನ್ನ ಹೊಟ್ಟೆ ತುಂಬಿಸಿಕೊಳ್ಳ ಅಪೇಕ್ಷಿಸಿದಾಗ, ಯಾರೂ ಅವನಿಗೆ ಕೊಡಲಿಲ್ಲ | ಆಗ ತಪ್ಪರಿಸಿಕೊಂಡು, ನನ್ನ ತಂದೆಯ ಹತ್ತರ ಎಷ್ಟೋ ಮಂದಿ ಕೂಲಿಯವರಿಗೆ ತುಂಬ ರೊಟ್ಟ ಉಂಟು, ಆದರೆ ನಾನು ಹಶಿವೆಯಿಂದ ಸಾಯುತ್ತೇನೆ | ನಾನು ಎದ್ದು, ನನ್ನ ತಂದೆಯ ಬಳಗೆ ಹೋಗಿ ಅವನಿಗೆ, ತಂದೆಯೇ, ಟರಲೋಕಕ್ಕೆ ವಿರೋಧವಾಗಿಯೂ ನಿನ್ನ ಮುಂದೆಯೂ, ಪಾಪ ಮಾಡಿದ್ದೇನೆ; ನಾನು ಇನ್ನೂ ನಿನ್ನ ಮಗನೆಂದು ಕರೆಯಲ್ಪಡ ಯೋಗ್ಯನಲ್ಲ; ನನ್ನನ್ನು ನಿನ್ನ ಕೂಲಿಯವರಲ್ಲಿ ಒಬ್ಬನಂತೆ ಮಾಡು, ಅನ್ನುವೆನೆಂದು ಹೇಳ, ಎದ್ದು, ತನ್ನ ತಂದೆಯ ಬಳಗೆ ಬಂದನು | ಅವನು ಇನ್ನು ದೂರದಲ್ಲಿ ರುವಾಗ, ಅವನ ತಂದೆ ಅವನನ್ನು ನೋಡಿ, ಅಂತಃಕರಣಪಟ್ಟು, ಓಡಿಬಂದು, ಅವನ ಕೊರಳನ ಮೇಲೆ ಬಿದ್ದು, ಅವನನ್ನು ಮುದ್ದಿ ಟ್ರಸು | ಆದರೆ ಮಗನು ಅವನಿಗೆ, ತಂದೆಯೇ, ಪರಲೋಕಕ್ಕೆ ವಿರೋಧವಾಗಿಯೂ, ನಿನ್ನ ಮುಂದೆಯೂ, ಶಾಪವಾಡಿದ್ದೇನೆ | ನಾನು ಇನ್ನೂ ನಿನ್ನ ಮಗನೆಂದು ಕರೆಯಲ್ಪಡೆ ಯೋಗ್ಯನಲ್ಲ; ಅನ್ನಲು, ತಂದೆಯು ತನ್ನ ದಾಸರಿಗೆ, ಶ್ರೇಪ್ಧವಾದ ಅಂಗಿ ತಂದು ಅವನಿಗೆ ಹೊದ್ದಿಸಿರಿ; ಅವನ ಕೈಗೆ ಉಂಗರವನ್ನೂ, ಘಾದಗಳಗೆ ಕೆರಗಳನ್ನೂ ಕೊಡಿರಿ; ಮತ್ತು ಉಂಡು ಆನಂದಪಡುವ; ಯಾಕಂದರೆ, ಈ ನನ್ನ ಮಗನು ಸತ್ತವನಾಗಿದ್ದು, ತಿರಿಗಿ ಬದುಕಿದ್ದಾನೆ; ಕಳೆದು ಹೋದವನಾಗಿದ್ದು, ಶಿಕ್ಕಿದ್ದಾನೆ; ಅಂದನು । ಆಗ ಆನಂದಪಡಲಾರಂಭಿಸಿದರು ॥

ಆದರೆ ಅವನ ಹಿರೇ ಮಗನು ಹೊಲದಲ್ಲಿ ಇದ್ದನು | ಅವನು ಬಂದು, ಮನೆಗೆ ಸಮಿಾಪಿಸುವಾಗ ಗಾನವನ್ನೂ ನಾಟ್ಯವನ್ನೂ ಕೇಳ, ಆಳುಗಳಲ್ಲಿ ಒಬ್ಬನನ್ನು ಕರೆದು, ಅದೇನೆಂದು ವಿಚಾರಿಸಿದನು | ಅವನು ಅವನಿಗೆ, ನಿನ್ನ ತಮ್ಮನು ಬಂದಿದ್ದಾನೆ; ಮತ್ತು ನಿನ್ನ ತಂದೆಯು ಅವನನ್ನು ಸ್ವಸ್ಥವಾಗಿ ತಿರಿಗಿ ಹೊಂದಿದಕಾರಣ ಪತಣ ಮಾಡಿಸಿದ್ದಾನೆ | ಆಗಲವನು ಕೋಪಗೊಂಡು ಒಳಗೆ ಬರಲ್ಲೊದೆ ಇದ್ದನು | ಆದದರಿಂದ ಅವನ ತಂದೆ ಹೊರಗೆ ಬಂದು ಅವನನ್ನು ಬೇಡಿಕೊಂಡನು | ಆದರೆ ಅವನು ಪ್ರತ್ಯುತ್ತ ರವಾಗಿ ತಂದೆಗೆ, ಇಗೋ, ಇಷ್ಟು ವರುಷ ನಿನಗೆ ದಾಸನಾಗಿದ್ದೇನೆ; ಎಂದಾದರೂ ನಿನ್ನ ಆಜ್ಞೆ ಮಿಾರಲ್ಲಿ; ಆದಾಗ್ನೂ ನನ್ನ ಸ್ನೇಹಿತರ ಸಂಗಡ ಆನಂದಪಡುವದಕ್ಕೆ ನೀನು ನನಗೆ ಎಂದಾದರೂ ಆಡುಮರಿಯಾದರೂ ಕೊಡಲಿಲ್ಲ | ಆದರೆ ನಿನ್ನ ಬದುಕನ್ನು ಸೂಳೆಯರ ಸಂಗಡ ತಿಂದುಬಿಟ್ಟ ಈ ನಿನ್ನ ಮಗನು ಬಂದಾಗ, ಅವನಿಗೋಸ್ಗರ ಫ್ಷಾ ಮಾಡಿಸಿದ್ದೀ; ಅಂದನು | ಆಗಲವನು ಅವನಿಗೆ, ಮಗನೇ, ನೀನು ಯಾವಾಗಲೂ ನನ್ನ ಸಂಗಡ ಇದ್ದೀ; ನನ್ನದೆಲ್ಲಾ ನಿನ್ನದೇ | ಆದರೆ ಆನಂದಸಂತೋಷಪಡಬೇಕಾಗಿತ್ತು; ಯಾಕಂದರೆ, ಈ ನಿನ್ನ ತಮ್ಮನು ಸತ್ತವನಾಗಿದ್ದು, ತಿರಿಗಿ ಬದುಕಿದ್ದಾನೆ; ಕಳೆದು ಹೋದವನಾಗಿದ್ದು, ಶಿಕ್ತಿದ್ದಾನೆ; ಅಂದನು ॥

[No. 14.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(Madras Aux. B. S., 1867.)

manushyanige ibbaru makkal-iddaru. Avar-alli chikkavanu tandege, man-to One twosons-were. Them-in the-younger father-to, 'tandevē, āsti-y-alli nanage bara-takka pālannu nanage kodu,' and-āga to-come-fit share father-O, property-in me-to me-to give,' said-then badukannu avarige pāl-ittanu. Kelavu dinagala mēle chikka maganu ellā them-to share-put. A-few of-days after younger living alldūra-dēśakke horatu alli kūdisi-kondu dundugāran-āgi far-country-to having-gone there spendthrift-having-become having-gathered baduki tanna āstiyannu hāļu-mādi-bittanu. Avanu ellā vechcha-mādida having-lived property ruined-having-made-left. Heallexpense-made mēle ā dēśad-alli ghōrav-āda bara unt-āgi avanu korate-padalthatplace-in famine having-arisen hein-want-to-fallaftersevere ārambhisidanu. Aga hōgi ā dēśasthar-alli obbanannu hondi-kondanu. Then having-gone those inhabitants-in began. onejoined. Ivanu avanannu handigalannu mēyisuvadakke tanna holagalige kaluhisidanu. swine This-one himto-feed his-own fields-to sent. handigalu hindi-y-inda tumbisi-kolla Hīg-iral-āgi tinnuva tanna hotte oil-cakes-from his-own belly to-fill-for-himself Thus-becoming pigs eating kodal-illa. tepparisi-kondu, apēkshisid-āga yārū avanige Āga 'nanna desired-then any-one him-to gave-not. Then having-come-to-his-senses, 'my tandeva eshtō mandi kūlivavarige tumba rotti untu; hattara ādare of-father near how-many persons servants-to fullbreadbutnānu haśivey-inda sāvuttēne Nānu eddu nanna tandeva balige \boldsymbol{I} hunger-from die. I having-arisen my of-father near "tandeyē, paralōkakke hōgi avanige, virodhav-agi-y-ū ninna having-gone him-to. "father-O, Heaven-to contrary-having-become-and of-thee munde-y-ū . pāpa Nānu innū ninna mād-iddhēne. magan-endu kareyalbefore-and sin having-done-am. I stillthyson-having-said to-bepada yogyan-alla. Nannannu mādu," ninna küliyavar-alli obban-ante called fit-man-am-not. make," Me thyservants-in one-like

annuven'-endu hēli eddu tanna tandeya balige I-will-say'-having-said having-spoken having-arisen his-own of-father nearbandanu. Avanu innu dūrad-all-iruv-āga avana avanannu tande nōdi came. Heyet distance-at-was-then his father himhaving-seen antahkarana-pattu ōdi-bandu koralina avana mēle biddu having-pitied having-run-having-come his of-neck having-fallen onavanannu mudd-ittanu. Adare maganu avanige, 'tandeyē, Paralōkakke him kissed. Butthe-son 'father-O, him-to, Heaven-to virodhav-agi-y-ū ninna munde-v-ū pāpa-mād-iddhēne. Nānu contrary-having-become-also of-thee before-also sin-having-done-I-am. I ninna innū magan-endu kareyal-pada yōgyan-alla,' annalu tandevu stillthy son-having-said called-to-be fit-man-am-not, said-when the-father tanna dāsarige, 'śrēshthav-āda angi tandu avanige hoddisiri; his-own servants-to, 'best-being robehaving-brought him-to put-on; avana kaige ungaravann-u pādagaļige keragaļann-u kodiri; mattu undu his hand-to ring-also feet-to shoes-also give; and having-eaten ānanda-paduva; yāk-andare ī nanna maganu sattavan-ag-iddu, merry-let-us-be; why-if-you-say this mysondead-man-having-become. tirigi baduk-iddhāne; kaledu hōdavan-āg-iddu, śikk-iddhāne,' andanu. againalive-is; lost gone-man-having-become, found-is,' said. Aga ānanda-padal-ārambhisidaru. Then merry-to-become-they-began.

Adare avana hirē maganu holad-alli iddanu. Ayanu bandu manege Buthis elderson field-in was. Hehaving-come house-to samīpisuv-āga, gānavann-ū nāţyavann-ū kēli, āļugaļ-alli obbanannu approaching-when, singing-also dancing-also having-heard, servants-in karedu. 'ad-ēn?'endu vichārisidanu. Avanu avanige. having-called, 'that-what?'having-said asked. Hehim-to. 'ninna tammanu band-iddhâne, mattu ninna tandeyu avanannu 'thy younger-brother having-come-is, andthyfather him svasthav-āgi tirigi hondida-kārana autana mādis-iddhāne.' healthy-having-become again obtained-because feast having-caused-to-be-made-is.' Agal-avanu kōpa-goṇḍu olage baral-ollade iddanu. Adadarinda Then-he anger-having-taken insideto-come-not-willing was. Therefore avana tande horage bandu avanannu bēdi-kondanu. Adare avanu his father outsidehaving-come himentreated. Buthe pratyuttarav-āgi tandege, 'igō, ishtu varusha ninage dāsan-āgreply-as father-to, 'lo, so-many years thee-toservant-having-becomeiddhēne; end-ādarū ninna ājñe . mīral-illa. Ādāgyū nanna snēhitara I-am: once-even thyordertransgressed-not. Yetof-friends

sangada ānanda-paduvadakke nīnu nanage end-ādarū ādu-mariy-ādarū kodal-illa. merry-to-become withthou me-to once-even goat-young-even gavest-not. Ādare ninna badukannu sūļeyara sangada tindu-bitta i ninna maganu Butliving harlotsthy with having-eaten-who-left this thy band-āga avanigōskara autaņa mādis-iddhī,' andanu. Agal-avanu a-feast having-caused-to-be-made-art,' he-said. him-for Then-he avanige, 'magan-ē, nīnu yāvāgalū nanna sangada iddhī; nannad-ellā ninnadē. 'son-O, him-to, thoualwaysof-me withmine-all thine-only. art; Adare ānanda-santōsha-pada-bēk-āg-ittu; yāk-andare, Butjoy-merriment-to-feel-necessary-having-become-was; why-if-you-say, thisninna tammanu sattavan-āg-iddu, baduk-iddhāne; kaledu tirigi younger-brother dead-man-having-become, thy lostagain alive-is; hōdavan-āg-iddu, śikk-iddhāne,' andanu. gone-man-having-become, found-is,' said.

[No. 15.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

SPECIMEN II.

A POPULAR TALE.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

ಇಬ್ಬರು ಹಾದಿಕಾರರು ಕೂಡಿ ಹೋಗುತ್ತಿದ್ದರು। ಅವರಲ್ಲಿ ಬಬ್ಬನಿಗೆ ಹಾದಿಯಲ್ಲಿ ಬಿದ್ದಿರುವ ಹಣದ ಚೀಲವು ಶಿಕ್ಕಿತು। ಅದನ್ನು ಕೈಯಲ್ಲಿ ತಕ್ಕೊ ಂಡು ಅವನು ಎರಡನೆಯವನಿಗೆ ಅನ್ನುತ್ತಾನೆ, ಎಲಾ, ಇದು ನೋಡು, ನನಗೆ ಹಣದ ಚೀಲವು ಶಿಕ್ಕಿತು।

ಅದಕ್ಕೆ ಎರಡನೆಯವನು ಅನ್ನುತ್ತಾನೆ, ಎಲೋ, ನನಗೆ ಶಿಕ್ಕಿತು ಹೀಗೆ ಯಾಕೆ ಅನ್ನುತ್ತೀ | ನಮಗೆ ಶಿಕ್ಕಿತು ಹೀಗೆ ಅನ್ನು | ನಾವು ಇಬ್ಬರೂ ಕೂಡಿ ಹೋಗುವವರು | ಆದದರಿಂದ ಲಾಭ ಅಥವಾ ಕೇಡು ಇಬ್ಬರ ಶಾಲಿಗೂ ಬರುತ್ತದೆ |

ಅದನ್ನು ಕೇಳ ಚೀಲ ಶಿಕ್ಕವನು ಅನ್ನುತ್ತಾನೆ, ಹಾಗಾದರೆ ನನಗೆ ಶಿಕ್ಕ ಬಡಿವೆಯ ಶಾಲು ನಿನಗೆ ಯಾಕೆ ಕೊಡಬೇಕು | ಅದಕ್ಕೆ ಎರಡನೆಯವನು ಅನ್ನುತ್ತಾನೆ, ಬಳ್ಳೇದು ಕೊಡಬೇಡ |

ಆಮೇಲೆ ಅವರಿಬ್ಬರೂ ಸ್ವಲ್ಪ ಮುಂದಕ್ಕೆ ಹೋಗುವಪ್ಪರಲ್ಲಿ ಚೀಲದ ಯಜಮಾನನು ಹುಡುಕುತ್ತ ಸರ್ಕಾರೀ ತಿಸಾಯರನ್ನು ಕರಕೊಂಡು ಅವರ ಬೆನ್ನಹತ್ತಿ ಬಂದನು | ಅವರನ್ನು ನೋಡಿ ಚೀಲ ತಿಕ್ಕವನು ಸೋಟಿತಿಯವನಿಗೆ ಅನ್ನುತ್ತಾನೆ, ಗೆಳೆಯನೇ, ನಾವು ಬಹಳ ಕೆಟ್ಟ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡಿದೆವು | ಅದಕ್ಕೆ ಸೋಟಿತಿಯವನು ಉತ್ತರ ಕೊಟ್ಟಿದ್ದೇನಂದರೆ—ಈಗ ನಾವು ಕೆಟ್ಟಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡಿದೆವು ಅಂತ ಯಾಕೆ ಅನ್ನುತ್ತೀ | ನಾನು ಕೆಟ್ಟ ಕೆಲಸ ಮಾಡಿದೆನು ಅಂತ ಅನ್ನು | ನೀನು ನಿನ್ನ ಸುಖದ ಶಾಲು ನನಗೆ ಕೊಟ್ಟಿದ್ದರೆ ನಾನೂ ನಿನ್ನ ದುಃಖದ ಶಾಲುಗಾರನಾಗುತ್ತಿದ್ದೆನು ॥

[No. 15.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

SPECIMEN II.

A POPULAR TALE.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

hādikāraru kūdi Ibbaru högutt-iddaru. Avar-alli obbanige Two travellers being-together going-were. Them-among one-to hādiyalli bidd-iruva hanada chīlavu śikkitu. Adannu kaiyalli way-in having-fallen-being money-of purse was-found. Thathand-in takkondu avanu eradaneyavanige annuttane. 'elā, idu nōḍu, nanage haṇada the-second-to taking he says, · O. thislook, me-to money-of chīlavu śikkitu.' was-found.' purse

eradaneyavanu annuttāne, 'elō, nanage Adakke śikkitu hige yāke Thereto the-second · O, me-to it-was-found says, why annutti? namage śikkitu, hige annu. Nāvu ibbarū kūdi thou-sayest? us-to it-was-found, 80 say. Wetwobeing-together Ādadarinda lābha hōguvavaru. athavā kēdu ibbara pāligū Therefore of-two share-to-indeed gainor loss goers. ' hāgādare baruttade.' Adannu kēli chila śikkavanu annuttane, nanage That 'if-so-be comes.' hearing purse finder says, me-to koda-bēku? Adakke odiveya pālu ninage yāke you-to To-it which-was-found thing-of share why to-give-is-necessary?' koda-bēda.' annuttāne, 'ollēdu eradaneyayanu the-other 'very-well do-not-give.' says,

Ā-mēle chilada avar-ibbarū svalpa mundakke höguv-ashtaralli Thereafter they-both a-little forward going-meantime purse-of benna-hatti yajamānanu hudukutta śipāyarannu kara-kondu avara sarkārī owner theirfollowing searching government bringing sepoys bandanu. annuttāne, Avarannu chila śikkavanu sõbatiyavanige nōdi came. Them companion-to says, seeing finder purse 'geleyane, sõbatiyavanu. nāvu Adakke bahala ketta mādidevu.' kelasa friend, we did. Thereto companion much badwork

ʻīga, mādidevu," "nāvu ketta kelasa anta yāke uttara-kottadd-ēn-andare, ' now, "we did," 80 why answer-given-what ?-if-said, badworkmādidenu," Ninu ninna sukhada annutti? "nānu ketta kelasa anta annu. luck-of Thou did," say. thysayest? "Ibadwork pālugāran-āgutt-iddenu.' ninna duḥkhada kottiddare nānū palu nanage mishap-of would-have-become-partner.' if-given I-too share me-to

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Two travellers were going together. One of them found a purse of money lying on the way. Taking it in his hand he said to the other, 'Oh, look here, I have found a money-bag.'

Thereto the other says, 'Oh, why do you say I have found it? We two are going together. Therefore either profit or loss is to fall to the share of us both equally.'

Hearing this the man in possession of the purse says, 'well then, why should I give you a share in the thing I have found?' To this the other says, 'very well, don't give it to me.'

Afterwards, when they had proceeded a little further, the owner of the purse looking about for it, came after them in company of Government peons. Seeing them, the man in possession of the purse said to his companion, 'friend, we have done a very bad thing.' To this the companion said in reply, 'why do you say now that we have done a bad thing? Say rather, "I have done a bad thing." If you had given me any share in your weal, I too would have been your partner in your woe.'

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The Kanarese spoken in Bijapur is locally known as Bijāpurī. It does not, however, differ from the standard form of the language to such an extent that it deserves to be considered as a separate dialect. The difference is chiefly one of pronunciation. Thus we find an a very commonly substituted for a final e; e.g. $y\bar{a}ka$, Standard $y\bar{a}ke$, why; ra, Standard re, if, etc.

E and \bar{e} are commonly replaced by ya and $y\bar{a}$, respectively; thus, $yall\bar{a}$, all; $my\bar{a}ge$, on, etc.

An anusvāra is sometimes written before v; thus, $k\tilde{\imath}vi$, ear; $\tilde{\alpha}va$, he. We ought perhaps to transliterate such forms as $ki\tilde{v}i$, $a\tilde{v}a$, respectively.

Initial o is pronounced vo as in Standard, and it has been transliterated accordingly; thus, vobba, one.

The dialect sometimes uses contracted forms instead of the fuller ones in the Standard dialect; thus, eddu, Standard eradu, two (neuter); nāku, Standard nāku, four (neuter); nandu, Standard nannadu, mine; nanga, Standard nana-ge, to me; bīļāku, Standard bīļalikke, to fall, and so forth.

With regard to the inflexion of nouns, the dialect closely follows Standard Kanarese. The plural suffix galu, however, sometimes becomes $g\bar{o}la$; thus, $yappa-g\bar{o}la$, fathers.

The conjugation of verbs is, mainly speaking, regular. The pronominal suffixes are very commonly dropped in the first and third persons singular; thus, $h\bar{o}de$, I went; $h\bar{o}d\bar{a}$, he went. The same is, however, also the case in Standard. When the pronominal suffix of the first person is retained we often find ni instead of ne; thus, $h\bar{o}gat\bar{e}ni$, Standard $h\bar{o}gutt\bar{e}ne$, I go.

Other minor details will be easily grasped from the specimen. It is not necessary to give more than the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in order to illustrate this form of speech.

[No. 16.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

BIJĀPURĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BIJAPUR.)

ಒಬ್ಬ ಮನಕ್ಕಾಗ ಇಬ್ಬರು ಮಕ್ಕಳಿದ್ದರು | ಮತ್ತು ಅವರಲ್ಲಿ ಸಂಣವಾ ತನ್ನ ಯಪ್ಪಗೆ ಅಂದಾ, ಯಶ್ಸಾ ನಂನ ಪಾಲಿಗೆ ಬಂದ ಜಿಂದಗೀ ಪಾಲಾ ನಂಗ ಕೊಡು। ಮತ್ತು ಅಂವಾ ತಂನ್ನ ಜಿಂದಗೀ ಅವರೊಳಗೆ ಹಂಚಿ ಕೊಟ್ಟಾ | ಮತ್ತು ಭಾಳ ದಿನ ಆಗಿದ್ದಿಲ್ಲ ಆಗ ಸಣ್ಣವನು ತಂನ ಯಲ್ಲಾ ಕೂಡಿಸಿದನು ಮತ್ತು ದೂರ ದೇಸಕ್ಕೆ ಹೋದಾ ನುತ್ತು ಅಲ್ಲಿ ತೆಂನ ಬದಕಾ ದುಂದತನದಿಂದ ನಡದು ಹಾಳವೂಡಿದಾ | ಮತ್ತು ಆತಾ ಯಲ್ಲಾ ಖರ್ಚಮಾಡಿದ ಮ್ಯಾಗ ಆ ದೇಸದಲ್ಲಿ ದೊಡ್ಡ ಬರಾ ಬಿತ್ತು, ಮತ್ತು ಅಂವಗ ಕೊರತೆ ಬೀಳಾಕ ಹತ್ತಿತು | ಮತ್ತು ಅಂವಾ ಹೋದಾ, ಮತ್ತು ಆ ದೇಸದ ಒಬ್ಬ ಮನ್ಯಾನ ಬದ್ಯಾಕ ನಿಂತಾ | ಮತ್ತು ಆತಾ ಇವಂನ ಹಂದೀ ಮೇಸಾಕ ತಂನ ಹೊಲದಾಗ ಕಳವಿದಾ | ಮತ್ತು ಆತಾ ಹಂದಿ ತಿನ್ನುವ ಸೊಪ್ಪಿನ ವೇಲೆ ತಂನ ಹೊಟ್ಟೇ ಖುಷಿಇಂದ ತುಂಬಿತಿಕೊಳ್ಳತಿರಬಹುದು, ಮತ್ತು ಯಾರೂ ಅಂವಗ ಕೊಡಲಿಲ್ಲಾ | ವುತ್ತು ಅವನ ಮೈಮ್ಯಾಗ ಯಚ್ಚ್ಚರ ಬಂದಬಳಕ ಅಂವಾ ಅಂದನು, ನಂನ ಯಪ್ಪನ ಯೇಸ ಮಂದಿ ಆಳಮಕ್ಕಳ ಹತ್ತರ ಹೊಟ್ಟೆ ತುಂಬಿಸಾಕಾಗಿ ವುಳಯವಪ್ಪು ಬಕ್ಕರೆ ಅದೆ, ಮತ್ತು ನಾ ಹಶಿವಿನಿಂದ ಸಾಯತೇನೆ | ನಾ ಯೇಳತೇನಿ ಮತ್ತು ನಂನ ಯಪ್ಪನ ಬದ್ಯಾಕ ಹೋಗತೇನಿ, ಮತ್ತು ಅಂವಗ ಅಂತೇನು ಯಶ್ತು ದ್ಯಾವರ ಮುಂದೆ ಮತ್ತು ನಿಂನ ಮುಂದೆ ಪಾಪಾ ಮಾಡಿಧೇನೆ | ಮತ್ತು ನಿಂನ ಮಗ ಅನಸಾಕ ನಾ ಯೋಗ್ಯ ಇಲ್ಲ | ನೀನು ನಿಂಸ ಆಳಮಗನಂತೆ ನಂನ ಮಾಡಿಕೋ | ಮತ್ತು ಅಂವಾ ಯದ್ದಾ ಮತ್ತು ತಂನ ಯಪ್ಪನ ಬದ್ಯಾಕ ಖಂದಾ | ಆದರೆ ಆತಾ ಇನ್ನೂ ಭಾಳ ದೂರ ಇದ್ದಾಗ, ಅವನ ಯಪ್ಪು ಅವಂನ ನೋಡಿದಾ ವುತ್ತು ಆತನ ಮ್ಯಾಗ ದಯಾ ಬಂತು ವುತ್ತು ಓಡಿ ಹೋದಾ ವುತ್ತು ಅಪ್ಪಿಕೊಂಡಾ, ಮತ್ತು ಮುದ್ದು ಕೊಟ್ಟಾ | ಮತ್ತು ಮಗಾ ಅಂವಗ ಅಂದಾ, ಯಶ್ಫ್ರು ದ್ಯಾವರ ಮುಂದ ಮತ್ತು ನಿಂನ ಮುಂದ ಪಾಪಾ ಮಾಡೇನಿ, ಮತ್ತು ನಾ ನಿಂನ ಮಗಾ ಅನಸರಿಕ್ಕೆ ಯೋಗ್ಯ ಇಲ್ಲ | ಆದರೆ ಯಪ್ಪು ತಂನ ಆಳುಗಳಗೆ ಅಂದಾ, ಒಳ್ಳೇ ಚಲೋ ಅಂಗೀ ತರ್ರಿ, ಮತ್ತು ಅವನ ಮ್ಯಾಗ ಹಾಕರಿ, ಮತ್ತು ಆತನ ಕೈಯ್ಯಾಗ ವುಂಗರ ಹಾಕರಿ, ಮತ್ತು ಆತನ ಕಾಲಾಗ ಮಚ್ಚೆ ಹಾಕರಿ | ಮತ್ತು ನಾವು ತಿಂಬೋಣ ಮತ್ತು ಆನಂದ ಬಡೋಣ | ಯಾಕಂದರೆ ಈ ನಂನ ಮಗಾ ಸತ್ತವಾ ತಿರಿಗಿ ಜೀವಂತ ಆಗ್ಯಾನ, ಅವನು ದೇಸಾಂತರ ಹೋದವಾ ಶಿಕ್ತಾನೆ । ಮತ್ತು ಅವರು ಸುಖ ಬಡಲಿಕ್ಕೆ ಹತ್ತಿದರು |

[No. 16.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

BIJĀPURĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BIJAPUR.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Vobba manaśyā-ga ibbaru makkal-iddaru. Mattu avar-alli One man-to sons-were. twoAnd them-among sannavā tanna yappage andā 'yappā, nanna pāli-ge banda jindagi the-younger hisfather-to said. father. my share-to coming property pālā nanga kodu.' Mattu ãvā tanna jindagi avar-olage hañchi share me-to give.' And he his property them-among having-divided kottā. Mattu bhāla dina āgidd-illa āga sannavanu tanna vallā kūdisidanu And gave. many daysbecame-not then the-younger collectedhisallmattu dūra dēsakke hōdā. mattu alli badakā tanna dundatanad-inda far and country-to and went. there his propertyriotousness-from hāla nadadu mādidā. Mattu ātā yallā kharcha-mādida myāga ā dēsad-alli behaving ruin made. And heallspent-made after that country-in dodda barā bittu, mattu ãva-ga korate bīlāka hattitu. Mattu ăvā greatfamine fell, and him-to distressto-fall began. And he hōdā, mattu ā dēsada vobba manaśyā-na badyāka nintā. Mattu and went. thatcountry-of oneman-of near stayed.And ātā ivanna handi mēsāka tanna holadāga kalavidā. Mattu ātā handi him he swine to-feed his field-to sent. And he swine tinnuva soppina mēle tanna hotti khushi-inda tumbiśi-koļļat-ira-bahudu, mattu eating bran on his belly gladness-with filling-himself-could-have-lived, and yārū kodalillā. ãva-ga Mattu avana mai myāga yachchara banda-balika anyone him-to gave-not. And his body senses coming-after on ãvā andanu. 'nanna yappana yēsa mandi āļamakkaļa hattara said, he 'my father's how-many persons servants-of near hotti tumbisāk-āgi vuliyav-ashtu bakkare ade. mattu nā belly to-fill-being-enough remaining-so-much breadis, andI haśivin-inda sāyatēne. Nā yēlatēni, yappana mattu nanna badyāka hunger-from die. I arise, andfather-of my near högateni, mattu ãvaga " yappā, antēnu, dyāvara munde mattu go, and him-to " father, say, God-of before andninna munde pāpā mādidhēne. Mattu ninna maga anasāka $n\bar{a}$ thee before sinI-have-done. I Andthyson to-be-called

yogya illa. Ninu ninna mādikō."' Mattu ãvā. āļa-magan-ante nanna servant-as am-not. Thou thy make." And he worthy me ātā bhāla dūra yaddā mattu tanna yappana badyāka bandā. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ dare innū stillaroseand his father-of But he very far near came. iddāga, avana yappā avanna nōdidā, mattu ātana myāga dayā and him being-then, hisfather him compassion saw, on mattu muddu kottā. bantu, mattu ōdi hōdā, mattu appi-kondā, having-run came, and hz-went, and embraced, andkissgave. Mattu andā, magā ãva-ga 'yappā, dyāvara munda mattu pinna father, And the-son him-to said. God-of before and thee munda mādēni, mattu nā ninna illa.' pāpā magā anasalikke yōgya before sinI-have-done, and I thyto-be-called son worthy am-not.' Adare yappā tanna āļugaļige andā, 'vollē chalō angī tarri, But the-father servants-to hissaid, · very goodcoatbring, mattu avana myāga hākari, mattu ātana kai-myāga vungara hākari, mattu and himput, andhishand-on ring put, and ātana kālāga machchi hākari. Mattu nāvu timbona mattu ānanda hisfoot-on shoe put. And let-us-eat joy we andbadona. Yāk-andare, ī sattavā, nanna magā tirigi let-us feel. Why ?-if-you-said, this 80n who-was-dead, my again jivanta āgyāna ; avanu dēsāntara hōdavā. śikkāne. Mattu alive has-become; he another-country who-had-gone, has-been-found,' And sukha badalikke hattidaru. avaru they happiness to-feel began.

GOLARĪ OR HŌLIYĀ.

The Golars or Golkars are a tribe of nomadic herdsmen in the Central Provinces. Compare Sherring's *Tribes and Castes*, Vol. ii, p. 112. They have been reported to speak a separate dialect of their own in Seoni, Nagpur, Chanda, Bhandara, and Balaghat. No specimens have been received from Nagpur, but there is every reason for believing that the Golars of that district speak the same language as those in the neighbouring districts of Bhandara and Balaghat. The Golars of Chanda, on the other hand, speak a form of Telugu. Compare below, pp.5024 and ff.

The Höliyas are a low caste of leather workers and musicians, and have been returned from Seoni, Nagpur, and Bhandara. Their dialect is identical with that spoken by the Gölars, and they are apparently simply an off-shoot of that tribe.

According to local tradition there were once two Gōlar brothers who possessed a cow. The animal died, and the elder brother told the younger one to remove the carcass. He complied with the order, and afterwards the elder brother told him not to touch him, because he had lost his caste by carrying off the carcass. The younger brother then went away, and became the progenitor of the Hōliyās. At the present day a Hōliyā is called to do the washing of the room and of the clothes of the deceased, when a Gōlar dies.

Specimens have been received from Seoni, Balaghat, and Bhandara. Those hailing from Seoni profess to illustrate the dialect of both castes, while specimens both in the so-called Golarī and in the so-called Hōliyā have been forwarded from Bhandara. It will, however, be seen that both in reality represent the same dialect, and there is, accordingly, no reason for separating them. At the last Census of 1901, no such dialect as Hōliyā was returned.

The number	\mathbf{of}	speal	kers	of	Gölarī	has	b e en	esti	\mathbf{mated}	as	follov	vs:-	-	
Seoni .		•												139
Nagpur .														170
Bhandara							•	•						1,015
Balaghat			•			•								1,400
											Tor	AL		2,724
The following	ga	re the	rev	rise	d figur	es fo	r Hōl	iyā	:					
Seoni .														125
Nagpur														300
Bhandara														465
		88		60							Тот	AL	• -	890
By adding th	ose	figur	es v	ve a	rrive s	t th	e foll	owir	ng tota	al f	or the	dial	ect :	;— ·
Golari .														2,724
Hōliyā .					•									890
											Тота	L,	•	3,614

The Seoni figures are those of the Census of 1891. The others are estimates forwarded for the use of this Survey. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:—

Seoni .									1,141
Nagpur									376
Bhandara				,					1,387
Balaghat			•						564
					12		To	TAL	3,468

Golari or Holiya is a dialect of Kanarese, and is especially closely related to the form which that language assumes in Bijapur. The dialect is not uniform everywhere. The local differences are, however, unimportant, and are mainly due to corruptions resulting from intercourse with the Aryan neighbours.

The specimens printed below are not very good ones, and they do not allow us to arrive at certainty regarding all points connected with the dialect. They were originally written in Dēvanāgarī and accompanied by a transliteration in roman character. Only the latter version has been printed below.

As a consequence of their having been noted down in Dēvanāgarī and not in Kanarese or Telugu characters, we have no indication as to when an e or an o is long or short. In distinguishing between the two forms of those vowels I have followed Standard Kanarese. It is, however, possible that I have sometimes erred and marked es and os as short which are in reality long.

Short and long vowels are, on the whole, very commonly confounded. Thus, we find $m\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ and mani, Standard mane, a house; nan and $n\bar{a}n$, Standard nanna, my, etc. A short vowel is apparently often lengthened when a following double consonant is simplified; thus, $v\bar{a}ba$, Standard obba, one; $h\bar{a}t\bar{i}n$, Standard hattidenu, I began. Often, however, the vowel remains short; thus, mat, Standard mattu, and. I have not therefore ventured to make the marking consistent.

Short final vowels are very commonly dropped; thus, $\bar{a}d$, it became: $\bar{a}g$, then; $a\bar{t}$ -mat, Standard alli-mattu, and there, etc. Sometimes, however, the short vowel remains, especially in the Bhandara specimens; thus, bat and batta, it came.

E and o are often replaced by ya and va, respectively, and the corresponding long vowels by $y\bar{a}$ and $v\bar{a}$, respectively. Thus, kyals, Standard kelasa, work; $my\bar{a}ka$, Standard $m\bar{e}ge$, on; vab, Standard obba, one; $kv\bar{a}tun$, Standard kottanu, he gave.

There are several other instances of changes in the vowels. Thus, we find abbreviated forms, e.g. $s\bar{o}t\bar{o}gidun$, Standard $sattu-h\bar{o}giddanu$, dead-having-gone-was, he had died; u for a, e.g. $m\bar{a}ddun$, Standard $m\bar{a}didanu$, he did; \bar{i} for \bar{e} , e.g. $badut\bar{i}n$, Standard $badiyutt\bar{e}ne$, I strike, etc.

The nasalized form $\tilde{a}va$, Standard ava, he, also occurs in Bijapur.

The use of aspirated letters is rather inconsistent, and does not agree with the practice in Standard Kanarese. Compare $\bar{a}dh\bar{\imath}t$, Standard $\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}tu$, it may become; $odhl\bar{\imath}t$ Standard volle, good, etc.

Double consonants are very often simplified; thus, mat, Standard mattu, and; al, Standard alli, there; āgidil, Standard āgiddilla, he was not, etc. The writing is, however, by no means consistent, and we find forms such as batta and bat, Standard

bantu, it came. Compare contracted forms such as gun, Standard gunta, near; yedd Standard yeradu, two; nāk, Standard nālku, four; nand, Standard nannadu, mine, and so forth. Similar forms nave already been noted in the Bijapur dialect.

The substitution of k for g in the suffix of the dative, in forms such as appak, to the father; $m\bar{a}ns\bar{a}k$, to a man, represents the state of affairs found in old Kanarese. Compare also the Telugu suffix ki.

D is always written as r in the Seoni specimen. I have retained this writing; thus, kor, Standard kodu, give.

Other details will be easily understood from the specimens.

With regard to inflexional forms, we may note the plural suffix $g\bar{o}d$ in $p\bar{a}r$ - $g\bar{o}d$, sons, in the Balaghat specimen. Compare the corresponding $g\bar{o}r$ in Seoni and $g\bar{o}la$ in the Bijapur dialect.

The short final vowel of verbal forms is usually dropped. Thus, $badut\bar{\imath}n$, I strike; $badut\bar{\imath}$, thou strikes; $badut\bar{\imath}n$, he strikes; plural, 1. $badut\bar{\imath}v$; 2. $badut\bar{\imath}r$; 3. $badut\bar{\imath}r$. Gölari in this respect agrees with Old Kanarese. We also sometimes find a final m in the third person singular, as in Old Kanarese; thus, $\bar{\imath}h\bar{\imath}m$ and $\bar{\imath}h\bar{\imath}n$, he is; nittum and nittun, he stayed.

The second person singular sometimes takes the form of the third; thus, māddun, thou madest.

The past tense of bases ending in u is formed by adding d directly to the consonant preceding u without inserting an i. Thus, $m\bar{a}ddun$, Standard $m\bar{a}didunu$, he made. The same principle also prevails in Old Kanarese.

We may further note forms such as badāin, I shall strike; anāin, I shall say; irho and irhur, they were; kānsta, Standard kānisitu, it was seen; vātusta, it appeared, etc.

The infinitive ends in $l\bar{\imath}$ or lik; thus, kai- $l\bar{\imath}$, or kai-lik, to tend.

Conjunctive participles such as $m\bar{a}d$ -ke, having done; huk-ke, having gone, are due to the influence of the surrounding Aryan dialects. The same is probably also the case with forms such as $yadk\bar{o}$, arising; $andak\bar{o}$, saying, etc.

The Aryan influence is also apparent in forms such as $h\bar{a}ng$ -cha, exactly so; $\bar{a}pan$ - $s\bar{e}$, (he said) to his father; rahan, he was; in the confusion between the neuter and masculine forms of the numerals; thus, $und m\bar{a}ns\bar{a}$ and $vab m\bar{a}ns\bar{a}$, a man, etc.

Yād batinā, sense came, in the Balaghat specimen, and vastā, coming, in that received from Bhandara, are Telugu and not Kanarese.

Note finally the negative form $kodv\bar{a}lun$, Standard kodolanu, he was not pleased to give. The form $h\bar{o}gdh\bar{o}dun$, he did not go, seems to be composed of $h\bar{o}gd$, corresponding to Standard $h\bar{o}gade$, not going, and $h\bar{o}dun$, he went.

It would be waste of time to go further into detail. The three specimens which follow will not, it is hoped, present any serious difficulty. They are all rather incorrect, and it has therefore been considered best to give them in full so that they may be used to control each other.

[No. 17.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

SPECIMEN I.

Golari (or Holiya) Dialect.

(DISTRICT BHANDARA.)

REPORT OF A THEFT.

śukaryāra-ka ulli nāva dina-ka anda-kō Nādada that-is-to-say Friday-on at-night we day-on The-day-before-yesterday Sarasā ādhā ullī-da sumāraka nānī chata mānī-ka mingkyā irevha. About half night approximately me-to sleeping were. house-in ki Nān vātusta kēda-batta. āhāta mānī-ka khadakhada hing it-appeared Me-to thatnoise house-in to-hear-came. rattling yedadeva nāmda Pāhāta-ka āg yadi-illā. āgīdhīta. Andakō $n\bar{a}$ nāye Morning-at we-arose thenour I arose-not. a-dog it-may-be. Therefore khōlīnda terakō kānsta. ad kavāda khölī mānī-ka und room-from doorhaving-opened was-seen. thatroom ishouse-in onetyārada yātara-guņa kavāda hachidin. Kavāda hotī-ka $n\bar{a}$ ida Minguda I this door shut. Door opened howtime-at Sleeping gadgyān-dā \mathbf{Ad} khōlī-dā vāba nān nūra noda-hātīn. ida $n\bar{a}$ to-see-began. That room-in onepot-in myhundred Iwas thisbyāla nūra rupaī itakō irho. Khölīmāt vhānonda isarā. rupaye gold-of ornaments, cash hundred rupees kept were. Roomandrupees gadgyān-dā itakō iruda gadgyā vādduda hōgda-bād jō māla ad $d\bar{a}$ which pot-in goods kept wasthatpot broken going-on in $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{g}$ mānā-dā chācha alle iddīlā. jāgī-ka kānsta, māt māla pattā and goods there were-not. Then house-in manyplaces-in tracepattā sikkī-illā. Māla yāru kaltkō yalhū arā māddīn pana anywhere trace was-not-found. Goods anybody I-made butifstealing ida kalū-da rapotā mādlīka bandīhīna. võdhīdhāna andakō nā Nān having-carried-may-be saying \boldsymbol{I} this theft-of report to-make have-come. Mykalūna ulli mānī nām yēbura kāvhara hesara Rāmā māt Gopālā house-in theft-of night $G\bar{o}p\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ my servants by-name $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ and mingkyö irhō. Adara-paikī nān samsā Gopāļā ĩva mānsā-myāka āda. sleeping were. Them-among my suspicion $G\bar{o}p\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ thisman-on is. Hängcha nänd śējār-dā vāba Gomā hesarinda sajā-pāvasta mānsā āhām, So-also neighbourhood-in $G\bar{o}m\bar{a}$ name-by convict one man

Āva mānsāk rupaī kodata nānī unda ēdu vastā-ahān. ãvũ nānd mānī men-to money giving Heme tana coming-is. house he-also muava yetta dyavanda munda nan Gopāļā ĩvuṅka kedata kāvhā nodduna, māt Gopāļā askingthisservant before my eightdays heand saw. āhān?' nānī itatā hing jamā yella mālika tāmda 'nīn inhāna kī, is?' keeping me-to where property that, ' thy masterhiswas pahāṭaka Ĩva nādadana-dīn nān mānsā āt. mālīma before-yesterday-the-day in-the-morning myThis man became. known bedhān. Nā karja rupaī ipat inhān, māt nān bandu mānī asked. I rupees twenty loan me was, and having-come house nūranda ãva yeddu rupaī yāja sababa kī koți-illā, karja avunka two rupees hundred-in interest thathe becausegave-not, loan him-to ãva vaktik Āva hōga-hathun ad kabūkala-iddillā. yāg kodlī thathe when to-go-began time-at Heconsented-not. to-give ādhīt nod-rahyā-nu.' vēna 'inda ulli nind mānī andun kī, may-become I-will-see.' whathouse-in nightthy 'to-day-of that, saidgävaka hōgyā-āhāna. Nān hatād inda dusrā mānsā ĩva Ag Me-to has-gone. it-seems village-to another man to-day thisThen Ida mukadamā-dā voda-hogidhana. ãva hidkō jamā nān kī Thisrun-gone-is. matter-in stealing he property that my āga-bē. -chaukaśī to-be-is-wanted. enquiry

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

The day before yesterday, which was a Friday, we were all sleeping at night in the house. About midnight I thought that I heard a rattling noise in the house. I thought that it might be the dog, and therefore I did not rise. When getting up in the morning, I found that the door of a room in the house had been opened, though I had shut it when I went to bed. I proceeded to look for the reason of its being open. In that room there was an earthen pot containing some gold ornaments and a hundred rupees On entering the room I found that the pot in which the property was kept had been broken, and that the contents were gone. Then I searched about the house in many places, but could not find any trace. Thinking that somebody might have carried the things away and stolen them, I have come to make this report of theft. On the night of the theft, two servants, Rāmā and Gōpālā by name, were sleeping in my Of them I suspect Gōpālā. Then there is in the neighbourhood a convict named Gomā, who also sometimes comes to my house. He has seen me give money to one or two men. A week ago he is said to have asked my servant Göpālā, where his master kept his money. The day before yesterday he came to my house and asked I did not give him the loan because he would not agree for a loan of twenty rupees. to an interest of two per cent. At the time of going away he said, 'I will see what will happen in thy house to-night.' To-day this man has gone to another village, and it seems to me that he has run away with my property. An enquiry ought therefore to be made into the matter.

[No. 18.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

SPECIMEN II.

GÖLARĪ (OR HÖLIYĀ) DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BALAGHAT.)

Yedārā mānsā yedd pārgōd yerho. Alto-śanyā apan-sē andun, 'hē mantwosons were. The-younger father-to said, O father, sampati-dā ēn nan hissā ād tō kod.' Bak adri vātā hach property-in what share becoming my thatThen them shares dividing give.' kvātun. Ēkhil din āgilā śan chat ēkhatē pār mādke gave. Many days became-not the-younger sonalltogether having-made mulki höydun. Ali luchkhōri kyals-dā chat sampati kharāb mādbūţun. country went. There wickedwork-in allwe althspent made. Bak chat kharāb mādbūtun bak bidun. Av ā mulk-dā khūb bār spentmadethen that country-in heavy famine fell. Hegaribā ādhyādun. Āv ā mulk-dā hukke yārdār manā nittum. distressedbecame. He that country-in having-gone inhabitant houseAv tam kēi-dā handi kāy-lī kātdun; ā pholkā handī tin-lī āg tīdun. He his field-in swine to-tend sent: that husk swine to-eat thenĀuṅkh yār-hū tin-lī kodvālun. Bak āunkh yād batinā, av andun, 'nan Himanyone-even to-eat gave-not. Then him-to sense came, he said. āpan manā chāk mānsān sātī vhātīk madthād, anā nā upās father house many servantsfor breadis-prepared, Iandwith-hunger sāythīn. $N\bar{a}$ yad-kō nan āpan hatī hōgāin, nā āun "hē anāin, die. arising my father near will-go, I to-him will-say, Ι " O father, nā bhagvānan kyals nā mādīlā, anā nin sāmnē nā pāpā and māddīn, bak I God for work I did-not, and thee before I sin and' nā nin pār an-hō lāyek-ilā. Nī nan vab vaņhār lāik samas."' I thy son to-be-called worthy-am-not. Thou me one servant like consider." Bak av yad-ko tan apan hatī hōdun. Bak av durya rahan āun And he arising his father towent. Andhe far was himfather nöd-ke dayā māddun, ã ōd-ke hōdun, au kutkik laptosyadun nā muttā seeing pity made, and running neck embraced went, andkisskvātun. \mathbf{Bak} āun andun, 'hē ap, $n\bar{a}$ bhagvānan and kyals ! nā gave. Andto-him he-said, 'O father, I Godfor deed

māddīn anā nin sāmnē nā pāpā māddīn. Bak nā nin pār anhō didand thee before I sindid. And I thyson to-be-called lāyek-ilā.' Bak kāhōrī andun, 'odhlī uthrā ap tantāgi worthy-am-not.' And the-father his servants said, `goodclothbringāunkh udsi. $\mathbf{An\bar{a}}$ āun kai-dā ungrā nā kāl-dā hāsi. pāypes Anā nāv his hand-on ring and foot-on him-on put. Andput. shoeAndwe tindhyönä valhidan khusi mādēva. Yāti-ki ī nan pār sōt-hōgidun, in will-eat merry happy will-make. Because this my son dead-gone-was, again jītā kadd-högidun, āgyāhan; in sīkāhan.' Bak yēva khusī again has-been-found.' alive has-become; lost-gone-was, And 80 merry māddun. he-made.

Aun dhod par kēi-dā irhan. \mathbf{Bak} ãv manā bandun, taptēkolhī $h\bar{a}t\bar{i}$ His great son field-in was. Andhehouse near came, musicanā kunhōdan kēldun. Anā av tan mansaran hātī-gutu vābun kardun and danceheard. And he his servants near-from onecalled himself hātī anā kēļdun kī, id. ēn hud?' Anā av andun kī, 'nim asked that, 'this what is-going-on?' And he saidthat. · your bandāhan, anā nim ap · odhlī anā mādyāhan. Aunk volhit past.' brother has-come, and your father good food has-made. Himwell found.' Bak āunk sitbati, $an\bar{a}$ hỗ-koṇḍīlā. manyā Idar-sātī āun ap And him-to anger came, and house-in go-would-not. Therefore hisfather horī bandun anā āunk mānsathyādun. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}$ apan andun, 'nōdī, nā it came and him entreated. He father-to said,'see, I so-many varstū-nā nim sēvā mādthīn. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{n}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ kabhū $n\bar{a}$ nim and kyalsā years-in your service do. And I ever you towards deedItādsīlā. Anā nānī nīv yāghlīva ud thay marri tubhī kotīlā, neglected-not. Andmeyouever one goatyoung even gave-not, and tan mitra sangad khusi mādīran. Bak ī nim pār kisabgītar I my-own friend with merry would-have-made. And this your son harlots sangad chat dhan tind-būtun hyang av bandun hang nīv vadhīdan āun with allproperty devoured 80 he camethusyou wellhim sātī atir.' Ap āun-sē andun, 'hē povār, nī sadā nan sangad for feasted. The-father him-to said.60 son, thou always me with ãē. nand ad, ad chat ninda ad. Av khusī mādhīrud, yāti-ki What mine is, that all art. thineis. And merry to-make-is, because this söt-högidun, in jītā āgyāhan; kadd-hōgidun, in sikyāhan.' your brother dead-gone-was, now alive has-become; lost-gone-was, now has-been-found.

[No. 19.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

SPECIMEN III.

GÖLARĪ (OR HÖLIYĀ) DIALECT.

(DISTRICT SEONI.)

chikd. Sānd chikd appun manushyo-no yedd gun Und man-of twosons. The-small son father-of nearOne ٠ē dhan-dā kuţū nami hissā kor.' Nin(sic.) hissā appu, māt-ār, given property-of our sharegive.' Hisshareword-played, 'O father, Hapur dina āgidil ki sānd chikd alhā nani(sic.) kut-bit. was-given. Many dayshaving-become-not when young son allhimmulki und jagā mārdun, dür hödun. Al-mat luchpanā jamā placemade, far country went. There-and riotousness property onekārdun. Āg alhā. jamā kārdun, mārdun alhā dhan ā wasted. Then allpropertyhe-wasted, property that made alldhōr kār bit. Āun kangāl āgi-y-ādun. Ā mulk-dō Hedistressed having-become-became. country-in heavy famine fell. That und manushyan-manā chākrī nittun. Äun mulk-dā handi kai-lī man-house in-service stayed. swine country-of one Heto-feed · Handī tour tindad nā tināi.' kei-dā. $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ tour karudun ' Swine husk eaten thathusk I field-in. will-eat.' sent Āun-gō yeāun tin-lī korvālun. Āun in chitnā bat. appun mane Histhen 'father's Him-to anyone to-eat gave-not. sense came, house tintan, sāitin. $N\bar{a}$ unhiyār $n\bar{a}$ upās nanappun-atti hapur hōgāin servanteats, \boldsymbol{I} hunger die. Ι myfather-near many will-go "ē anāin. nāni paramēśvar appu, mani pāp māredin āữ āũ matā and word will-say, "0 father, I Godbefore sindidandāũ sāmnē, nani nin nimlāi nittidil. nindū mag Unhivār before, thy worthy-to-be-called stand-not. thine and son Servant sams." lāik Īdun sōch-kō hati hōdun. nan appu Dürün consider." like me Thus thinking father tohe-went. Far-from appu nördun appu magun bartan: lār mārdun, ördun, āũ saw the-father the-son coming; the-father pity made, ran. and kut-kiyā kai, āũ muntā kodun. narā Mag māt-ār, ٠ē appu, neck-on his(?)fell, and kiss gave. The-son said. ٠0 father, nani paramēśvar mani pāp māredin āũ nindū sāmnē; āũ $_{
m nin}$ mag: I Godbefore thine sin didand before; and thyson

nimlāi nittidil.' Na appu chākar-görun andun. worthy-to-be-called stand-not. But the-father the-servants-to said. achchā pharkivā tari, āũ nan mago ursi, āũ ungra berlā: goodclothes bring, andmy son put-on. andring finger-onhakki, āũ kāl-dō pāpus tari, hakki; tinni āñ ānand māri: yeāti . put, and shoesbring, foot-on put; eatand merry make: for nan mag sötögidun, urkō bandun: kardogidun, mat bandun. dead-gone-was, my son alivecame; lost-gone-was, and came. Āũ ānand mārtan. And merry makes.

Dhōr mag kēi-dā irān. Αũ maniā hate-hate bandun, kērdun Elderson field-in was. And house-to nearer came, heard bājā kunutar. Tan chākrūn kardun, ٠ kā nam maniyā yih dance. musicHisservant called, · what our house-in all-this nagtāt?' Chākran kērdun, 'nin vārt bandun; ninappu āun happening? Servant said, thy! brothercame; thyfather him varlēdun nördun, uttam bhōjan mārdun.' Bako āun sit mārdun. safe-and-sound saw. best feast made.' Butheangermade, maniā högdhödun. Appu harrā bandun samsdun. Mag house-in did-not-enter. The-father out came entreated. The-son andun appun, fit barsõ nin gun sēvā mārtīn, āũ hukumā said to-the-father, 'so-many years theewithservice I-do, andordernā āĩ kardedil, nī nani und arinpadā kottedil, jō I transgressed-not, thoume one kidgavest-not, which sangi-mit tindhiran. Nin mag alhā sampat hingsarun given-if with-friends eating-was. Thyson allproperty harlots tinsdun. āun bandun, āun-sātī utam bhōjan māddun(sic.).' caused-to-eat, he came, him-for best food thou-madest.' Appu andun, f ai chikd, nī nand $sad\bar{a}$ sangun hiyā. Jō The father said, 60 son, thoumy always What near art. dhan nand. sõ dhan nind. Jō nin vārt bandun. property mine. that property thine. Which thybrother came, sötögidun, kardögidun. bandurdā, nami khuśi batta idur-sati dead-gone-was, lost-gone-was, was-found, we happy becoming therefore karkyā tinchdeva.' feast caused-to-eat.'

It has already been noted that separate specimens in Höliyā have been forwarded from Bhandara. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the so-called Höliyā follows. It will show that Höliyā also in Bhandara is identical with Gölarī.

[No. 20.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

GÖLARĪ (OR HÖLIYĀ) DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BHANDARA.)

parpakada edda irora. Shana pāra mansān āpun antā, twosons were. The-younger Oneman-of son father-to said, iamā nāni kod.' Āva nān hissän tan jamā 'hābā, vātsi father, myshare-of property me give.' Hehisproperty dividing Bak shāna pāra tan jamā tā-kō dür kottun. urā vhādun. the-younger gave. And son his property taking far country went. hökki paiśā hārshabitun. Ātālu tanAva urā paiśā sarusdur money country having-gone hiswasted. AllHemoney spent-on bit. Āvug Āg dhōda bāra bak tangī bit. āva urāg fell. Him-to scarcity then difficulty fell. Then greathe country-in hōkki nittun. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{g}$ mansān tan dhōda kēi-dā āva handi ādasli Then having-gone stayed. his man-to field-in greatheswine to-tend Āva hastādun kalodun. āg handin mundi tavuda tindānā Hesent. became-hungry then swine before husk having-eaten-is āvuk Bak hatta. hinga ivug yènu kotidil. Āva bak Thenso him-to it-appeared. him-to anybodygave-not. Hethenśuddhi-dā bandun mät-äddun, 'nan ăpuna chākrun vhātā-pakshī jyāstī senses-on cameword-played, 'my father-of servants-to belly-than more siktada, anna $n\bar{a}$ upās sāitīn. Nā yedakü āpuna hatti is-got, Ι with-hunger I fooddie. having-arisen father near "bābā, hōśtīna, āg āpun antān, nin-gunda nā andēvan-gunda thenfather-to "father, I thee-before go, say, and God-before pāp mādvā. $N\bar{a}$ nin mag lāyaka-illa. Ni nān chākar bhātīnd did.sin \boldsymbol{I} thy sonworthy-not. Thou me servant like it." Āva yedkū tan āpun hattī vhādun. Āp duru-tuna keep." Hearising hisfather to went. The-father far-from āvuk nöddun, āvuk dayā bat, āva ōdkī kuti biddun. āvun him-to him saw, pity came, he running neck-on fell, hismuttā koddun. Bak mag āpun gun māt-āddun, 'bābā, $n\bar{a}$ kiss gave. Then the-son the-father toword-played, father. Ι nin dyāvan gun pāpa mādyā. gun Āg nin mag parnātī illa.' God. to thee tosindid. Thenthyson worthy not.

Āp chākrun hēlatān, 'ivun sāṭī oļļyāv phadkyā kond-kuttā āvun The-father servants-to said, ' him for goodclothbringing hismaidāk hāki, kaidāk ungrā hāk, kāldā pāypasa hāk. Tā. tindku body-on put, hand-on ring put, foot-on shoe put. Well. eating khushī māduna; iva nan mag sötidun, jityā ādun; āva merry let-us-make; this myson. died. living became: he sikdun.' kāladogidun, mundura khuśi Āg āsālā mād-kurtur. had-been-lost, was-found.' Thenalltheymerry to-make-began.

Āvun dhōd pāra kēi-dā irhān. Āva mānā hattī bandun, kuņakyā Hiseldest son field-in was. Hehousecame. dancing hāda kvāldun. Āg āva unda mansān kardun āva kēlādun, 'hund singing heard. Then he oneman calledhe asked, 'such id yën-und?' Āva āvuk hyāldun, 'nin vārt bandān. Āva this what-is?' Hehim-to said, 'thy brother has-come. Hesukhrāt bandun anku nin āp pāhuñchār māddun.' Āg āvuk safe · came saying thy father feastmade.' Then him-to sit bid. mānyā hōgidilla Āvuk āp horā bandun, magun angerfell, house-in went-not. Him-to father outcame, the-son samsa-kurtun. Āva āpun ' māt-āddun, 'īsa varsā indun chākrī to-entreat-began. Hefather-to word-played, 'so-many years till-now service māddin, pan nin hukum murdidil. Nan sangin gund khuśi-mōjā I-did, butthy' command broke-not. Myfriends with merriment māllik unda ādin marri kotidilla. Iva nin mag bandun, ātālu nin to-make one goat's young gavest-not. This thy soncame, alljamā randī-bāji-dā hārsadun, . āvun sātī dhōda mējvānī māddun.' nī harlots-with . property wasted, · him for thoufeastbiggavest.' Bak āp māt-āddun āvuk, ʻnī hattī irhatē. nan Ātālu nan Then father word-played . him-to, thou . me with art.Allmypaiśā ninda-ch sōtidun, āva ād. nin Iva vārt jityā ādun; āva thine-indeed is. money This thybrother died, healivebecame; he kāldun. āva sikdun. anku āvun sātī mējvānī vājabī ād. mādun was-lost, was-found, saying hehimfor feast proper to-make

KURUMBA OR KURUMVĀRĪ.

The Kurubas or Kurumbas are a race of nomadic shepherds in the Nilgiri Hills and neighbouring districts. The Kurumbas of the plains speak ordinary colloquial Kanarese.

The Kurumbas seem to be identical with the Kurumvārs, a wild pastoral tribe in Chanda, who speak a dialect of Kanarese.

Kurumba or Kurumvārī was returned as a separate dialect at the Census of 1891 from the following districts:—

Chanda													2,320
Cuddapah													280
North Arcot													35
Salem													. 5
Coimbatore													13
Nilgiri													3,182
South Arcot		•.										- 1	6
Tanjore											0		7
Trichinopoly										- 1		•	,
Malabar											·	•	213
Cochin											•	•	1,546
Coorg													2,791
9										To	TAL		10,399
he correspond	ing f	igure	es at	the 1	last (Censi	ıs of	1901	. wer	e as	follo	ws:-	_
Assam .													14
Central Province		handa											2,151
Madras Preside	ncy												5,044

Assam	•				•						14
Central Provinces, C	handa										2,151
Madras Presidency											5,044
Cuddapah										40	,,,,,
Bellary										47	
Anantapur										1	
North Arcot										82	
Nilgiris									3,7	14	
Tanjore									-,-	3	
Trichinopoly									18	33	
Malabar										65	
South Kanara								Ī		1	
Pudukkottai			•			:	•	•	2	08	
Coorg									_		4,162
3		-	-	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	4,102
								To	TAL		11,371

A short vocabulary of the dialect as spoken in the Nilgiris has been printed in the Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency, Vol. ii, Madras, 1885, pp. 193 and ff. It is not sufficient for deciding whether that dialect is identical with the Kurumvārī of Chanda with which we are, in this place, exclusively concerned. Both forms of speech are, however, closely related dialects of Kanarese.

The specimens received from Chanda have not been forwarded in the Kanarese alphabet. We have not, therefore, any means for deciding when an e or an o is short or long. I have followed the same principle as in the case of the Gölarī specimens, in consulting the usual forms in Standard Kanarese.

The Kurumvārī dialect is, as the specimens clearly show, a form of Kanarese. In many points, however, it agrees with Telugu and differs from the other language.

The plural *pillagānḍlu*, children, is Telugu. Still more important is the fact that the feminine singular has no separate form, the neuter being used instead. Thus, *pille sāmānoka ittu*, the daughter was of indifferent beauty.

The adverbial suffix $g\bar{a}$ in $a\bar{u}n$ rupa \bar{m} -chakkag \bar{a} idd \bar{a} , he was well-looking, is also used as in Telugu.

The d of the past tense is usually dropped. Thus, mādenu, I did; ōgine, he went. When the base ends in n, however, it is retained; thus, andā, he said; andade, she said. In koṭṭāne, he gave, it has been treated as in Standard Kanarese, and it is, therefore, probable that its disappearance in such forms as those just mentioned is simply due to contraction.

A particle allā is often added to the verb, apparently without changing the meaning. Thus, antunallā, he says. Its original meaning is probably 'is it not so?'

On the whole, however, the forms occurring in the specimens which follow will be recognized as Kanarese.

[No. 2I.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

KURUMVĀRĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

SPECIMEN I.

Obba mansen ibbaru makālu iddaru. $Adog\bar{a}$ chinnonu ayyanu-kudi Oneman-of twoThen the-younger sons were. $the\mbox{-}father\mbox{-}with$ andā, 'yāvodo sommu-sambandham ańchi nan-gā bar-li koddu,' yān said, 'which property-share dividing me-to to-come give,' 80 andā. Mardli avanu pillagānu sommu ańchi kottāne. Mardli kisi Then said. sonpropertydividing gave. Then some din-kā chinna allā magnu sommu jami-āḍini dūr dēśam ōgine. days-in young allcollectedpropertyfar country went.

[No. 22.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

KURUMVĀRĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

SPECIMEN II.

ibbaru chinnā makāļu Obo manse-gā iddaru. obo pillagānu obo One man-to twosmallchildren were, one boy and one Pillagānu aün rupam-chakkagā iddā, pille. pille sāmānokā itu. Ondi girl. The-boy heface-pretty was, the-girl common was. One dine aüru ibbaru pillagāndlu addam deggerā ādkuņtā. iddaru. children looking-glassdaythey twonear playing were. Pillagānu pillenā andā, addam olgā 'avē, bore nodmādī, chakkag The-boy the-girl-to said, 'well. glass well look, pretty kānistaru.' Pillenu yāru adu ketdu kānistade. Adikā taldella, appears.' who The-girl-to badthatappears. Her-to was-known, 'avun ketolu mādek-osrā,' nanā andade. Agā adu tande totigā ōgi · he low making-for,' she-said. Then she father going Adi andade, annā nindyāļu yēļide. 'tande, addam-dogā rup-kāram nōdi reproachmade. She brother said, father, glass-in face seeing sāmādhānam āga-bēku idi egusane kelsā. ādogā manchēru manasu become-should this satisfaction women's business, that-in men mind irsā-bādā.' Tande ibbarnā ot-gā idadu dāni samādhānam The-father place-should-not. bothbelly-to catching her satisfaction andā, 'pillagānu, nivu mādere. Aün jhagdi ikoladari. Ivotaridu nivu Hesaid, boy, made. you quarrelmake-not.To-day-from you ibbaru nichchavu adamdogā nödtiddade.' bothalwaysglass-in seeing-is.'

Pillā antdu. 'tande. gavlī Sömēnu bandene. ālu tikolā said. The-girl father, milkman Somē milkbringing came. Aün antunalla, "ī ālu irsāle?", Tande antonallā. 'pillē, " what Hesays, milk shall-I-keep?"' The-father says, 'daughter, "ivatu ēļtudā, āni-toti ar-sāligi ālu ātau, nāle sõlige him-to tell, "to-day half-measure milkis-enough, to-morrow a-measure idkondu-bā."' Pille ālu antudallā, 'tande, gavļī ālu milkholding-come." The-daughter says, father, the-cowherd milk

tarti?' 'nin-gā erkilanāyānā, antunallā, aürveli-di Tande not-known, his-'thee-to wherefrom brings?' The-father said, tartun.' allu kardu mandli ākāļ idau, bariyal idau. Avu he-brings.' milking she-buffaloes Them milkhouse-in cows are, are. bariyā kodtadu, vunnā Pille antadallā, 'tande, ākāļā yēvas-ālu a-she-buffalo gives, The-girl said, father, a-cow how-much-milk andkodtadu?' ākālā evadu ālu Tande antunallā, ' ondondo yēvasu gives? twomilkhow-much The-father said, 'each cow evadu śērlu ālu kodtadu, vunnā bariyālu nāku nāku śērlu ālu milkshe-buffaloes milktwosers gives, and four four sers kodtadu.' give.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A man had two children, a boy and a girl. The boy was very well-looking; the girl of common appearance. One day they were both playing near a looking glass, and the boy proposed that they should see who was the prettiest. The girl did not like the proposal, thinking that it was only made in order to humiliate her. So she went to the father and complained. She said, 'it is meet that women should be pleased at seeing their face in the glass, but men should not set their mind on such things.' The father embraced both, and soothed them. He asked them not to quarrel, but in future always to look in the glass.

Then the girl said that the milkman Some had come and asked how much milk they wanted. The father answered, 'my daughter, tell him that one ser will do for today. To-morrow we must have two.' The girl then asked where the milkman got the milk, and the father replied, 'don't you know? He has cows and she-buffaloes in his home, and he milks them.' Then the daughter asked how much milk a cow gives, and how much a she-buffalo. The father said, 'each cow gives two sers milk, and each she-buffalo four.'

BADAGA DIALECT.

The Badagas are the most numerous of the tribes inhabiting the Nilgiris. The name simply denotes them as the people from the north, and it has sometimes also been used in the Tamil country as a name for Telugu. The Badagas of the Nilgiri Hills are often called by us Burghers. Their language is a dialect of Kanarese.

At the Census of 1891, 30,656 persons were returned as speaking Badaga, viz. 30,633 in the Nilgiris, 21 in Coimbatore, and 2 in Malabar. At the last Census of 1901 the figures were as follows:—

Nilgiris	•		•	•	•								34,223
Coimbatore	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		6
-3			1720								То	TAL	34,229

The Badaga dialect does not fall within the scope of this Survey. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son will, however, be printed below in order to make it possible to use the dialect for comparative purposes. It has been taken, from the edition of the gospels published by the Madras Auxiliary Bible Society.

It will be seen that Badaga is a very ancient form of Kanarese. Thus the sounds l and r are still found (e.g. makklu, children; horisivi, put on); m corresponds to Standard n in forms such as appam, father; avam, he; the personal pronoun of the first person is $n\bar{a}m$, I; dative yenaga; the past tense of the verbs agrees with Old Kanarese (e.g. mādidem, I did; klēgidam, he sent), and so forth. Note also the common substitution of ch for s; thus, $d\bar{e}cha$, country, in which point Badaga agrees with Tamil.

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DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

BADAGA DIALECT.

ಒಬ್ಬ ವುನಿಚಗ ಎರಡು ಮಕ್ಕ್ಷಿದ್ದರು. ಅವಕರ್ಟ್ಫೋಗೆ ಕುನ್ನವ ಅಪ್ಪಂಗ, ಅಪ್ಪಾ! ಆಸ್ತಿಯೊ ಯಿನಗ ಬವು ಕೂರ ಯಿನಗ ತಾ ಎನ್ಮುನೆ, ಅವತಿ ಅವಕಗ ಬದುಕ ಕೂರ ಚೃತಿ . ಜೋಚಿ ಜಿನಗಿಂದೆ ಹ ಕುನ್ನ ಮಾತಿ ಎಲ್ಲಾವ ಸೇತಿಯುಂಡು, ದೂರ ದೇಚಗ ಕಡೆದು ಹೋಗಿ, ಅಶ್ಲಿ ಕೆಟ್ಟವಲನಾಗಿ ಬದಿಕಿ, ತನ್ನ ಬದುಕೆಲ್ಲಾವ ಬೀಱಿ, ಹ್ಜಾಮಾಡಿಬುಟ್ಟ. ಆಲೆ ಅವಕ್ರ ಎಲ್ಲಾವ ಬೆಚ್ಚಮಾಡಿದದೆಮ್ಮನೆ, ಆ ದೇಚ ಬಕ್ಕೆಲ್ಲ ಅನಹಂಜ ಉಟ್ಟಾತು; ಅವಹಿಗ ತಟವೊಟ ಆಪದುಗಾತು. ಆಗ ಅವಹಿ ಹೋಗಿ, ಆ ದೇಚದವಕರ್ನ್ನೋಗೆ ಬಬ್ಬ ಗೆರಸ್ತನ ಸೇದೂಂಣ್ಮ. ಎವ್ಮ ಅವ್ಮನ ಹೆಂದಿಯ ಮೇಸೋದುಗ ತನ್ನೊಂಲಗ ಕ್ಟ್ರೇಗಿದ್ದು. ಇತ್ತೆ ಹಣೀನೆ ಹಂದಿ ತಿಂಬ ತೌಡೂಂದ ತನ್ನ ಹೊಟ್ಟೆ ತುಂಬಿಸೋದುಗ ಆಸೆ ಪಟ್ಟಲ; ಆಲೆ ದಾರೂ ಅವಲಗ ಕೊಟ್ಟ ಇಲ್ಲೆ . ತನ್ನ ಬುದ್ದಿ ತನಗ ಬಪ್ಪನೆ, ಅವ್ಮ, ಯೆನ್ನಪ್ಪನ ಸಾರೆ ಯೇಚೋ ಕೂಠಿಯವಕಗ ದೊಟ್ಟ ಬೇಕಾದಾಚಗ ಮಿಾಹೆ ಹಡದೆ; ಆಲೆ ನಾಕ ಇಲ್ಲಿ ಹಸೂಂದ ಸತ್ತನೆ ನಾಕ ಯ್ಟ್ರೆದ್ದು, ಕಡೆದು, ಯೆನ್ನಪ್ಪನಸಾರೆ ಹೋಗಿ, ಅವ್ಮಗ, ಅಪ್ಪು! ಮೇಲೋಕಗ ಬಿರೋದಾಗಿಯೂ ನಿನ್ನ ಮುಂದಾಡೊ ಪಾಪ ಮಾಡಿದೆಲ್ಲ ನಾಲ ಇನ್ನು ನಿನ್ನ ಮಾತೀಂದು ಕೊರಚಿಸಿಯುಂಬದುಗ ತಕ್ಕವ ಅಲ್ಲ; ಯೆನ್ನ ನಿನ್ನ ಕೂಲಿಯವಕರ್ಟ್ಪೇಗೆ ಒಬ್ಬನ ಮಾಕೆ ಮಾಡುನ್ನನೆ, ಎಂದು ಹ್ಟ್ರೀಗಿ, ಯ್ಟೆದ್ದು, ತನ್ನಪ್ಪನ ಸಾರೆ ಬನ್ನ ಅ. ಆಲೆ ಅವಅ ಇನ್ನು ದೂರದೊ ಇಬ್ಬನೆ, ಅವಕಿನಪ್ಪಕ ಅವಕಿನ ನೋಡಿ, ಕರ್ಟ್ಟಕತ್ತಿ, ಓಡಿಬಂದು, ಅವಕಿನ ಗ್ಲತ್ತುಮೇಲೆ ಬ್ಲುದ್ದು, ಅವಕಿನ ಮುತ್ತಿಕ್ಕಿದ. ಆಲೆ ಮಾತಿ ಅವ್ಮಗ, ಅಪ್ಪು! ಮೇಲೋಕಗ ಬಿರೋದಾಗಿಯೂ ನಿನ್ನ ಮುಂದಾಡೂ ಪಾಪ ಮಾಡಿದೆ. ಇನ್ನು ನಿನ್ನ ಮಾತೀಂದು ಕೊರಚಿಸಿಯುಂಬದುಗ ನಾ ತಕ್ಕವ ಅಲ್ಲ, ಎನ್ನಲ. ಆಗ ಅಪ್ಪ ತನ್ನ ಜೀವಿತಿಗಾರರುಗ, ಬೇಗನ ಒಳ್ಳೊಳ್ಳೆಯ ಚೀಲೆ ಹೊತ್ತು ಬಂದು, ಅವರ್ಕ ಹೊಹಿಸಿವಿ; ಅವರ್ಕ ಕೈಗ ಉಂಗರವವೂ ಕಾಲುಗ ಕೆರವವೂ ಕೊಡಿವಿ. ಇನ್ನು ತಿಂದು ಕುಸಾಲೆ ಆಪೋಳಿ. ಯೇಕಾಂದಲೆ ಈ ಯೆನ್ನ ಮಾತಿ ಸತ್ತವ ಆಗಿದ್ದು, ತಿರಿಗಿ ಬದಿಕಿದ್ದನೆ; ಅರಂದ್ಹೋದವ ಆಗಿದ್ದು, ಸಿಕ್ಕಿದ್ದನೆ, ಎನ್ನು. ಆಗ ಕುಸಾಲೆ ಆಪದುಗೆ ಹೊರವಟ್ಟರು |

ಆಲೆ ಅವಂನ ದೊಡ್ಡ ಮಾತಿ ಹೊಲದೊ ಇದ್ದ ಅ. ಅವ್ಯ ಬಂದು, ಮನೆಗ ಸಾರೆ ಆಪನೆ, ಹರೆಕೋಲವೂ ಆಟವವೂ ಕ್ಟೇತು, ಜೀವಿತಿಗಾರರ್ಟ್ಟೇಗೆ ಒಬ್ಬನ ಕೊರಚೆ, ಅದೇನಾಂದು ಬೆಚರಣೆ ಮಾಡಿದ ಅ. ಅವ
ಅವಂಗ, ನಿನ್ನ ತಮ್ಮ ಅ ಬಂದಿದ್ದನೆ, ಅದುಗಾಗಿ ಅವಂನ ತಿರಿಗಿ ಓಸ್ಹೆಂಗೆ ಕಂಡದುನೆಂದ ನಿನ್ನಪ್ಪ ಅ ತೀನಿ ಮಾಡಿಸಿದ್ದನೆ, ಎನ್ನ ಅ. ಆಗ ಅವ ಕೋಪಆಗಿ, ಓಜಗೆ ಬರಕೊಳ್ಳಾಂದು ಇದ್ದ ಅ. ಆದದುನೆಂದ ಅವಂನಪ್ಪ ಅ
ಹೊರಾಚುಗ ಬಂದು, ಅವಹಿಗ ತಮರಿಕೆ ಹ್ಟೇಗಿ ಕೊರಚಿದ ಅ. ಆಲೆ ಅವ ತನ್ನಪ್ಪ ಆಗ ಮರುತ್ತರಾಗಿ, ಎದಗೇ, ಈಸು ಬರಿಜ ನಿನಗ ಗೀದೆ ಅ, ಎಂದಾಲೆಯೂ ನಿನ್ನಪ್ಪಣೆಯ ಮಾರುಲೆ; ಆಲೆಯೂ ಯೆನ್ನ ಸ್ನೇಚಗಾರರ
ಕೋಡ ಕುಸಾಲೆ ಆಪದುಗ ನೀ ಯೆನಗ ಎಂದಾಲೆಯೂ ಒಂದು ಆಡುಮರಿಯಾಲೆಯೂ ತಪ್ಪಿಲೆ. ಆಲೆ ಸ್ಟೂ ಯೆಯರ ಕೋಡ ನಿನ್ನ ಬದುಕ ತಿಂದು ಬುಟ್ಟ ಈ ನಿನ್ನ ಮಾತಿ ಬಂದದೆ ಮ್ಮನೆ, ನೀ ಅವಹಿಗಾಗಿ ತೀನಿ ಮಾಡಿಸಿದೆ ಎನ್ನ ಅ. ಆಗ ಅವಹಿಗ, ಮಗನೇ, ನೀ ಯೇಗ್ಟು ವವೂ ಯೆನ್ನ ಕೋಡ ಇದ್ದೇ; ಯೆನ್ನದೆಲ್ಲಾ ನಿನ್ನ ದುತಾ ಅ; ಆಲೆ ಕುಸಾಲೆಯೂ ಜೆಚ್ಕೋಚವೂ ಆಪದಾಗಿ ಹಟ್ಟ; ಯೇಕಾಂದಲೆ ಈ ನಿನ್ನ ತಮ್ಮ ಅ ಸತ್ತವನಾಗಿದ್ದು, ತಿರಿಗಿ ಬದಿಕಿದ್ದನೆ, ಅರಂದ್ಹೋದವೆ ನಾಗಿದ್ದು, ಸಿಕ್ಕಿದ್ದನೆ, ಎನ್ನ ಆ ॥

[No. 23.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KANARESE.

BADAGA DIALECT.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Obba				makkl-i					
One				children					-
appamga,	'app			yenaga				enaga	
father-to,		_	_	me-to		•			give,
emmane	avan			aduka					g-hinde
when	he			living					s-after
kunna	māti-			uṇḍu,			ga		ledu
younger	son	all	having-g	gathered,	far	country	-to	having	- $passed$
$h\bar{o}gi$	al		keţţavam	n-āgi	badi	iki	tanna	baduk	-ellāva
having-gon	e the	ere wie	ked-havin	g-become	having-	lived	his	livin	g- all
bīŗi			. Āle		ellāva			didad-e	mmane
wasting	ri	ined.	Bu	t he	all	expen	se	made-u	hen
ā dē	cha	bakkella	anahafi	ija uţţāt	u: ava	amga	tatamota	āpa	dugātu.
that con	untry			ne aros					
Āga av				dēcha					
Then h		_	e that		itants-am				
sēdūmņam				handiya					egidam.
7				pigs		_	_		_
Itte ha	adone	handi	timba	taudūnda	tanna	hoțțe	tumbis	ōduga	āse
	-			husks-with			to-j	fill	desire
pattam;	āle	dārū	avamga	kotta-ille	e. Tann	a bude	di tana	iga b	appane
-		anyone	him-to	gave-no	t. His				
avam,	'yenn-	appana	sāre	y	ēchō	kūliy	avakaga	L	doțți
				· how					bread
bēl	cādāchag	a ·	mir	i had	lade, āle	nām.	illi	has	sūnda
necessary-l					is, bu		here	hunge	er-from
sattane.	Nām	yleddu,	kadedu	, yenn	-appana	$s\bar{a}re$	hōgi	, a	vamga,
die.	I	rising,	passin	g, my	-father	near	goin	g,	him-to,
" appā,	mēlōka	aga bir	od-āgiyū	ninna	mundād	ļū pā	p a m ā	didem.	$N\bar{a}m$
"father,				thee					
innu nin	ma 1	mātīndu	korai	chisiyumba	aduga	takkavai	n al	la;	yenna
still th				to-be-called	l	fit-man	am-	not:	me
						5500			- 0

ninna kūliyavakarloge obbana māke mādunnane,"' enduhlēgi. thyservants-among onelike make-shall-say," SO saying, yleddu tann-appana sāre bannam. Āle avam innu dūrado rising his-father near came. Butheyetat-a-distance ibbane avamn-appam avamna nōdi karlukatti. ödi bandu. being his-father him seeing pitying, running coming, avamna glattu-mēle bluddu, avamna mutt-ikkidam. Āle māti hisneck-on falling, him kiss-gave. But the-son avamga, 'appā, mēlökaga birod-agiyū ninna mundādū pāpa mādidem. him-to, father, heaven-to contrary thee before-also I-made. Innu ninna mātīndu korachisiyumbaduga nām takkavam alla,' Still thyson-saying to-be-called I fit-man am-not. ennam. Āga appam tanna jīvitigāraruga, 'bēgana ollolleva said. Then the-father his servants-to, 'quickly good-good chile hottu bandu avamga horisivi. Avamna kaiga ungaravavū robe carrying coming him-to put-on. Hishand-on ring-also kāluga keravavū kodivi. Innu tindu kusāle āpōm; yēkāndale, foot-on sandals-also put. And eating merry let-us-make; why?-if-you-say, ī yenna māti sattavam āgiddu, tirigi badik-iddane; this my 80n dead-man having-been, again living-is; arand-hōdavam āgiddu, sikk-iddane,' ennam. Āga kusäle āpaduga lost-gone-man having-been, found-is,' said. Then merry to-make horavattaru. they-commenced.

Āle avamna dodda māti holado iddam. Avam But his elder 200 field-in was. Hebandu, manega sāre āpane. harekolavū ātavavū klētu. having-come, house-to nearcoming, music-also dance-also having-heard. jīvitigārarļōge obbana korachi. 'ad-ēn-?'āndu bicharane servants-among one having-called, 'that-what?'saying inquiry mādidam. Avam avamga, 'ninna tammam band-iddane, made. Hehim-to. 'thy younger-brother having-come-is. adug-āgi avamna tirigi ōs-henge kandadunenda ninn-appam tīni therefore him again healthy found-because thy-father feast mādis-iddane,' ennam. Āga avam kopa-agi ölage causing-to-be-made-is,' said. Then heanger-having-become inside barak-olländu iddam. Ādadunenda avamn-appam horāchuga bandu to-come-refusing was. Therefore his-father outsidehaving-come avamga -tamarike hļēgi korachidam. Āle avam tann-appamga him-to satisfaction having-said called. Buthe his-father-to

maruttar-āgi, 'edagē, īsu baricha ninaga gidem. Endāleyū lo, replying, so-many years you-to I-served. Once-even ninn-appaneya mīrule; āleyū yenna snēchagārara kōda kusāle thy-order not-transgressed; stillmyfriends with merry āpaduga nī yenaga endāleyū ondu ādu-mariy-āleyū tappile. to-become thou me-to once-even one goat-young-even gavest-not. Āle slūyeyara kōda ninna baduka tindu-butta ī ninna Butharlots withthy living having-eaten-throwing thisthymāti bandad-emmane nī avamg-āgi tīni mādiside,' ennam. Āga came-when son thou him-for feast lettest-make,' said. Then ' magan-ē avamga, nī yēgļuvavū yenna kōda iddē; yennad-ellā him-to, ' son-O thou always me withart; mine-all Āle ninnadutām. kusāleyū chachchōchavū āpad-āgi hatta: thine-alone. Butmerry-also happy-also to-become was-necessary : yēkāndale, ī ninna tammam sattavan-āgiddu, tirigi why ?-if-you-say, this thyyounger-brother dead-man-become-having, again badik-iddane: arand-hōdavan-āgiddu, sikk-iddane,' ennam. alive-is; lost-gone-man-having-become, found-is,' said.

KURUKH.

Kurukh is spoken in the western portion of the Bengal Presidency and the adjoining parts of the Central Provinces. The number of speakers is about half a million.

According to their own traditions the Kurukh tribe originally lived in the Carnatic, 'whence they went up the Narbada River and settled in Bihar on the banks of the Sone. Driven out by the Muhammadans, the tribe split into two divisions, one of which followed the course of the Ganges, and finally settled in the Rajmahal hills; while the other went up the Sone, and occupied the north-western portion of the Chota Nagpur Plateau, where many of the villages they occupy are still known by Mundārī names. The latter were the ancestors of the Orāos [Kurukhs], while the former were the progenitors of the Male, or Sauriā as they often call themselves, whose grammar is closely connected with Orāo, though it has borrowed much of its vocabulary from the Aryan languages in the neighbourhood.'

Mr. Gait, from whose Report of the Census of Bengal, 1901, the preceding quotation has been reprinted, further remarks—

'The Caste Table shows the number of Orāõs to be 652,286, and the tribal language is spoken by 543,505 persons. As in other cases, members of the tribe who have emigrated to other districts are more prone to abandon their original language than those who stay at home. In the north of Ranchi, however, where they are much mixed up with Mundas, more than 23,000 Orāõs have given up their language and now talk a dialect of Mundarī known as Hōrōliā Jhagar. On the other hand, a few Mundas (724), Khariās (405), Lohārs (145), and Gōnds (75) in that district returned Orāõ as their language. In Singhbhum also, some members of other tribes speak Orãõ, including 806 Kurmis, 115 soi-disant Rājputs, 74 Tāmariās, and 50 Lohārs. In Manbhum 72 Santāls, 19 Bhumijs and 5 Mundas were returned as speaking Orãõ.'

The state of affairs is similar in other districts, and Kurukh is accordingly known under several different names.

The tribe call themselves Kurukh, and their language Kurukh Kathā. Dr. Hahn is of opinion that the word Kurukh 'may be identified with the Kolarian horo, man, or may be derived from the Dravidian-Scythian word kuruk, a cryer.' He compares the Kürkü word körö, man, and, with reference to the second derivation, the name Slavonic, from slovo, word, voice. I do not know the history of the 'Dravidian-Scythian' word kuruk, but the derivation does not seem probable. A people may call themselves 'speakers,' but scarcely 'cryers.' I am not, however, able to give any certain derivation of the word. Another common name of the tribe is Oraco, with many slightly varying forms such as Urão, Urang, Aurang, etc. Dr. Hahn explains this word as the totem of one of the septs into which the Kurukhs are divided. According to him Orao is a name coined by the Hindus, its base being $Orgor\tilde{a}$, hawk or curny bird, used as the name of a totemistic sept. Compare, however, Kaikādī urāpāi, man; Burgandī ūrāpō, man; ūrāng, men. In a similar way Kurukh may be connected with Tamil karugu, an eagle, and be the name of a totemistic clan. Compare also names such as Korava, Kurru, a dialect of Tamil, and Kodagu. Hindus say that the word 'Orao' is simply the Indo-Arvan urāû, spendthrift, the name being an allusion to the alleged thriftless character of the people to whom it is applied.

It has already been pointed out that the Kurukhs are much mixed with Muṇḍās. We cannot, therefore, wonder that speakers of Kurukh have occasionally been returned as speaking Muṇḍā languages such as Khaṛiā, Korwā, Kōḍā, Hō, and so on.

In other cases the name of the caste or occupation is used to denote the language. Such names are Dhangari, Kisan, and probably also Khendroi.

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Dhāngarī simply means 'the language of the Dhāngars,' a caste whose business it is to dig wells, tanks, etc. The word is sometimes corrupted to Dhanwārī.

Kisān means cultivator, and may, as the denomination of a language, connote any form of speech.

I do not know anything about the names Khendrõi and Kachnakhrā which are used in Jashpur and Ranchi respectively.

None of these names properly denote the language. Some details about their use will be found under the heading Number of Speakers, below. They should all be discarded, and the language will hereafter be throughout spoken of as Kurukh.

About three-fifths live in the Ranchi district, especially in the north and north-west. They are further found in considerable numbers in the south of Palamau and in the Chota Nagpur States. More than 93 per cent of the speakers in the tributary States are found in Gangpur and Jashpur. Speakers are further found in small numbers in the adjoining districts of Hazaribagh, Manbhum, Singbhum, Bonai, Pal Lahera, Bamra, Rairakhol, Sambalpur, Patna, Sarangarh, Raigarh, Sakti, Udaipur, Sarguja and Korea. Emigrants have brought the language with them to Jalpaiguri and the various districts of Assam, where it is spoken by coolies in the tea-gardens.

The principal Aryan language of Ranchi and Palamau is Bihārī. The other districts within which Kurukh is spoken belong to the areas occupied by Oriyā and Chhattīsgarhī. The Kurukhs are everywhere intermixed with various Mundā tribes. They are also very often confounded with them. The Kurukhs are relatively most numerous in Ranchi. They are still numerous in Palamau, Gangpur, and Jashpur. In other districts they are as a rule rather thinly scattered.

The Kurukh language is essentially the same over the whole area. There is said to be a separate dialect spoken in Gangpur, called Berga Orāō. No information is, however, available about that form of speech. Kurukh has not been reported from Gangpur for the purposes of this Survey. It is not, however, probable that the so-called Berga Orāō essentially differs from other local forms of the language, which are in reality no separate dialects but more or less corrupt forms of Standard Kurukh; in fact, 'berga' has been explained as being really the Hindī word bigarā, corrupt. The corruption is usually due to the influence of surrounding Aryan dialects, and sometimes also the influence of neighbouring Mundā forms of speech may be perceived. On the whole, however, Kurukh is uniform over the whole area where it is spoken as a vernacular. Varying names of occupation or caste, such as Dhāngar, Kisān and so on, do not imply any difference of dialect.

Number of speakers. The estimated number of speakers in those districts where Kurukh is spoken as a vernacular are as follows:—

Orissa Tril	butar	y Sta	tes (P	al La	hera)						295
Hazaribagh		٠.									3,934
Ranchi										. 6	325,860
Palamau											30,000
Manbhum											1,071
Singbhum											3,220
•							Ca	rried o	over		364.380

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

							-			0.20				
л	aghnun Ctat						В	rough	t forwa	rd	.364,380			
	ashpur Stat		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 20,000			
	Corea State Sonai State		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 63			
			•	•	•	•	•				. 500			
	arguja Stat		•	•	•	•	•				. 23,430			
	Idaipur Stat	te .		•	•	•					. 1,598			
								m	D					
S	ambalpur							TOTAL	BENGA	L	•		9,971	
	akti .		•	•		•	•		•	•	. 41,000			
	aigarh		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 1,500			
	-		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 5,000			
	arangarh . Bamra .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 1,511			
	lairakhol .	•	•	•		•	•	•			. 3,750			
	atna .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 547			
r	atna .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		. 475			
						π	OTAT	CENTE	AL PRO				. =00	
						-	UIAL	OENIR.	AL LEO	VINCES	•	. 5	3,783	
								GRA	ND To	OTAL		465	3,754	
												-		
Outs	side its p	oroper	terri	torv	Km	nkh	is t	o som	e ovt	ant a	nakan h			
of whom	ana forma	l	- 47		1.	. u. <u>n.u</u>	10 (O SOLL	C CAU	cur s	horen o	y emig	rants, 1	nost
or whom	are found	amon	g the	e coo	lies	in th	ie to	ea-gai	rdens	in .	\mathbf{Bengal}	and As	ssam.	The
Tollowing	are the i	revised	figu	res si	uppli	ed as	esti	mates	for t	his S	urvev :-	_		
Ca	achar Plain	s .								_	. 1,251			
K	amrup .									•	. 200			
D	arrang .									•	. 1,900			
N	owgong .								i	•	. 475			
Si	bsagar .							•	•	•	. 1,850			
	akhimpur							•	•	•	. 3,150			
	•					•	•	•	•	٠.	. 0,100			
								TOTAL	Assam			. 8	,826	
	lpaiguri .										. 13,184		,020	
	nahabad .										. 250			
Cl	namparan .										. 5,000			
Bl	hagalpur .									•	. 12,966			
								- 5	•	٠.	. 12,000			
								To	TAL BEY	NGAL		31	,400	
												-	_	
									GRA	ND ?	TOTAL	40	,226	
-														
The	estimated -	numb	er of	spea	kers	of K	uruk	h at	home	and	ahroad	in th	onof	
follows :-	-			-						· WILL	abroau	. 18, ыц	ererore	, as
	Kuru <u>kh</u> s	moken e	t home	h										
	Kurukh s	noken el	proof.	b-r	•	•	•	•	•	•	463,754			
	Later and B	POKCH &	orvau	Бу	•	•	•	•	•	•	40,226			
							,	Pom						
							-	COTAL	•	•		503,	980	
The	figures v	otumno	1 .4	41-1	- 4 0				_					
ine	figures r	есшпе	u ai	гие т	ast C	ensu	s of .	1901	show	a cor	nsiderab	le incre	ease in	the
number o	r sheaver	s, and	it wi	ll be	of in	iteres	st to	add	them	for	compa	meon		
as follows	:							× 0.70.77.00			оотра	13011.	They	\mathbf{are}
A														
	sam .	•	•	•		•		•				. 10	791	
Ве	ngal .		•	•								. 544,		
	Burdwan Birbhum	•	•	•			•	•			. 473	- 022,		
50			•	•	•						30			
	Midnapor		•	•	•	•	•				264			
	Hoogly	•	•	•		•					1,630			
								220 99						
								Carri	ed over		2,397	555,	715	
										23	67 1030	,		

KURUKH. 409

							В	rough	t forv	vard		2,397	555,715	
	Howrah						_						000,120	
	24-Parganas			Ţ.		- 1	Ī	10				2,244		
	Calcutta		•		- 6	•	- 0	-	10.71		ं	203		
	Nadia	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	82		
	Murshidabad		•	•	•	·	•	•	•	:	:	1,430		
	Rajshahi		•	•	•	:	•	•	•	•	:	5,485		
	Dinajpur	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	4,573		
	Jalpaiguri	:	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	53,828		
	Darjeeling		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		7,449		
	Rangpur		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		531		
		•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		470		
	Bogra .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•			
	Shahabad	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	969		
	Bhagalpur	• .	•	•	•	•	•	٠.	• .	•	•	2,984		
	Purnea	•	•	•	•	•	• .	•	• .	•	•	2,250		
	Malda	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2,157		
	Sonthal Parg	anas	•	•	•	•	•	• .	•	. • .		1,744		
	Balasore	•		•	•			٠.	• .	٠.		12		
	Angul and K		mals			•	•			• .		1,126		
	Hazaribagh			•		•	•	• .	• ,	•		2,930*		
	Ranchi										3	14,778		
	Palamau											21,606		
	Manbhum											330		
	Singbhum											6,973		
	Kuch Bihar		• .									4		
	Orissa Tribut	ary S	States									2,941*		
	Chota Nagpu				tes						1	03,708*		
								-		•	-			
~							TOTAL	BENGA	L	•	. 9	44,924		
Cen	tral Provinces		•	• .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		54,006	
	Nagpur .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. •	•	1 .		
	Bilaspur .		•	• .	•	•		•		•	•	171		
	Sambalpur .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. :	30,000 *		
	Sakti	,		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	9		
	Raigarh .		•	•	•	•		•	•			4,312		
	Sarangarh .											885		
	Bamra .											15,704		
	Rairakhol .											1,402		
	Sonpur .											805		
	Patna .											666		
	Kalahandi .											51		
				ā.	TI.	-	-	-	I.S.	-				
				1	OTAL	CENT	RAL PR	OVINCE	83			54,006		
						GI	RAND	TOTA	\L				609,721	
											•	-	500,121	

It will be seen that there is a large increase in Jalpaiguri, and that Kurukh has been returned from several districts where it had not formerly been reported to be spoken. This state of affairs is due to the greater accuracy of the last Census, and probably not to a real increase in the number of speakers. If we compare the figures from those districts where Kurukh is spoken as a vernacular, we will find that there is a marked decrease over almost the whole area.

The number of speakers has increased in Singbhum, the Chota Nagpur Tributary States, Bamra, Rairakhol, and Patna. It is not, however, possible to decide whether the increase is real or only apparent. The speakers of Kurukh have formerly been often returned under various Mundā dialects, and it has not always been possible to correct the old figures. Thus, no speakers of Kurukh were returned for this Survey from the

Gangpur State, whereas, in 1901, 93 per cent. of all the speakers of Kurukh in the Chota Nagpur States were found in Gangpur and Jashpur. The revised figures from Bamra were 3,750 for Kurukh, entered as a form of Kōrā, and 13,569 for Muṇḍārī. In 1901 the corresponding figures were 15,704 for Kurukh and 6,023 for Muṇḍārī. We can safely infer that several speakers of Kurukh were formerly entered under Muṇḍārī, and that the same is certainly the case in other districts. On the whole we are apparently justified in saying that the number of speakers of Kurukh is decreasing.

In the preceding tables no reference has been made to the various names under which Kurukh has been returned.

The name Dhangari has been returned from the following districts:-

Shababad										250
Champaran										5,000
Bhagalpur										12,966
Manbhum										1,071
Sakti										1,000
Raigarh	,									5,000
Sarangarh										604
O										
							To	TAL	•	25,891

In Bhagalpur the speakers are also locally known as Kols.

Kisān is the name under which Kurukh has been reported from the following districts:—

Sambalpur.									22,000
Sarangarh .									907
Bamra									3,750
Rairakhol .				•					547
						To	TAL	•	27,204

The 20,000 speakers of Kurukh in the Jashpur State have been returned as speaking Khendröi. Finally in the Census of 1901, 465 speakers of a language called 'Malhar' were discovered, of whom 414 were returned from the Orissa Tributary States, 50 from Hazaribagh, and 1 from the Chota Nagpur Tributary States. The very meagre materials which are available and which are not worth publishing seem to show that Malhar is only a corrupt form of Kurukh, and the figures have therefore been included in the above table.

Kurukh is, to some extent, spoken by Mundās and others, and in the old returns it has continually been confounded with various Mundā dialects.

We find Kurukh returned under the name of Khariā from-

Pal Lahera				•	•				295
Bonai									320
Sambalpur		•					•	•	6,000
							То	TAL	6,615

From Sambalpur we find 9,000 Kurukh speakers returned under the name of Kōṛā, and similarly 2,950 Kōṛwās in Hazaribagh have turned out to speak Kurukh. The same is the case with 475 individuals in the Patna State who were reported to speak Hō.

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It is of no use to enlarge upon the distribution of the speakers of Kurukh between the various so-called dialects. The different names do not connote different forms of the language, but are due to the fact that the names of castes and occupations have been entered as connoting various dialects. The table 407 and ff. therefore includes all the figures entered under the various headings mentioned above.

I am not aware of the existence of any old authority dealing with Kurukh. The Authorities. following is a list of those which I have come across:—

Mason, F.,—The Talaing Language. Journal of the American Oriental Society, Vol. iv, pp. 277-288. Contains a list of words in Oraon, etc., reprinted in the British Burma Gazetteer, and in the Revue de Linguistique, Vol. xvii, pp. 167 and ff.

Batsch, Rev. F.,—Brief Grammar and Vocabulary of the Orāon Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxv, 1866, Special Number, App. E, pp. 251 and ff.

CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE, - Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874, pp. 94 and ff.

FLEX, REV. O.,-Introduction to the Urāun Language. Calcutta, 1874.

HAHN, REV. FERD., -Kurukh Grammar, Calcutta, 1900.

-Kurukh (Orā c)-English Dictionary. Part I, Calcutta, 1903.

-Kurukh Folk-lore. Collected and transliterated. Calcutta, 1905.

Kurukh is not a literary language and has no written character. The gospels in

Kurukh have been printed in Dēvanāgarī type in Calcutta.

The translation is due to the Rev. F. Hahn, who has also published a biblical history, a catechism, and other small books in the language. His Kurukh grammar has already been mentioned in the list of authorities. It is the principal source from which the remarks about Kurukh grammar which follow have been taken.

Pronunciation.—The short a has the sound of a in 'America.' It is very often marked as long, probably in order to avoid the broad pronunciation of a in Oriyā. Thus, $eng\bar{a}n$ instead of engan, me; $\bar{a}ni\bar{a}s$ instead of $\bar{a}nias$, he said. Such forms are especially common in those districts in which the principal Aryan language is Oriyā. The pronunciation of Kurukh has there been seen through Oriyā spectacles.

Two vowels often follow each other without being pronounced as a diphthong. Thus, chi'inā, to give. Both vowels are here separately sounded and belong to different syllables. This separate pronunciation has been marked by an apostrophe between the two vowels. It seems probable that it is due to the influence of the peculiar semi-consonants of Mundārī. Sometimes also the apostrophe is written between a consonant and a vowel. Thus, endr'im, whatsoever; mal'ā, not. In such words there is a stop between both sounds. So far as can be judged from Mr. Hahn's grammar the apostrophe may be compared with the Arabic Hamza.

Two vowels separated by a stop and forming two different syllables are very commonly contracted. Thus, chīdai, instead chi'idai, he gives. This contraction takes place regularly in the past tense of verbs. Thus, ba'anā, to speak; bāchkan, I spoke; chō'onā, to rise; chōchkan, I rose. The contracted vowels are then, finally, often shortened in various ways. Thus i'i become i; ui u; and oē o; e.g. chi'inā, to give, past chichkan; uinā, to plough, past usskan; põēnā, to rain, past possā.

There are several other changes in the vowels in the past tense of verbs. E becomes i, and \bar{e} becomes \bar{i} in words such as $errn\bar{a}$, to sweep; irrkan, I swept: $\bar{e}rn\bar{a}$, to see; $\bar{i}rkan$, I saw. In other cases the change of e to i seems to be due to a following i or u. Thus, $esn\bar{a}$, to break; eskan, I broke; $\bar{a}d$ $is\bar{i}$, she breaks; $is\bar{u}$, a breaker: $kh\bar{e}'en\bar{a}$, to die; $kh\bar{i}'id\bar{i}$, thou (fem.) diest. Compare the remarks on harmonic sequence in Santālī, on p. 37.

Similarly o sometimes becomes u; thus, $ottn\bar{a}$, to touch; uttkan, I touched: $\underline{kh}\bar{o}rn\bar{a}$, to sprout; $\underline{kh}\bar{u}rkan$, I sprouted: $onn\bar{a}$, to eat; unus, an eater.

Final long vowels are shortened when a consonant is added. Thus, $akk\bar{u}$ and akkun, now; $mer\underline{kh}\bar{a}$, heaven, accusative $mer\underline{kh}an$. Shortening of long vowels is also very common in the past tense. Thus, $p\bar{\imath}tn\bar{a}$, to kill, past pitkan; $k\bar{u}rn\bar{a}$, to be hot, past kuttkan; $\underline{kh}oyn\bar{a}$, to reap, past $\underline{kh}osskan$; $m\bar{o}\underline{kh}n\bar{a}$, to eat, past mokkan.

With regard to consonants we shall note the pronunciation of \dot{n} and \underline{kh} .

The guttural nasal n is pronounced like ng in English 'king' when it stands at the end of a syllable or is followed by h. Before a vowel, on the other hand, it is an ng with a following g. Thus, enhai, my, but enga, me. This distinction is, however, continually disregarded in the specimens, and ng is usually written in all cases.

The sign <u>kh</u> denotes the sound of ch in Scotch 'loch.' In many places it has become an h. So for example in Raigarh, in the so-called Kisān of Sarangarh, in the so-called Khariā and Kisān of Sambalpur, and lastly in Pal Lahera, Bamra, and Rairakhol, i.e., in all the southern districts with the exception of Patna.

Nouns.—Men and gods are masculine; women and goddesses are feminine; other nouns are neuter. Feminine nouns are neuter in the singular. Kurukh in this respect agrees with Telugu.

There are two numbers, as in other connected languages. There is not, however, any proper plural form of neuter nouns, the singular form being used for both numbers. If it is necessary to express plurality of neuter nouns, some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc., is added; thus, man-guthi, tree-all, trees. Compare Mundari.

The plural of rational nouns is formed by adding ar. Compare Tamil ar, Kanarese aru, Telugu $\bar{a}ru$, etc. Thus, $\bar{a}l$ -ar, men; mukkar, women; $\bar{a}l\bar{i}$ -guthi-ar, wives; $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$ baggar, father many, fathers, and so forth. \underline{Khadd} - $\underline{kh}arr\bar{a}$, offspring, means 'child-sprout', and is neuter.

Case suffixes are added immediately to the base as is also the case in Mundārī. In the case of masculine nouns, however, we have two bases in the singular. The simple base is used in an indefinite sense. When definiteness should be expressed, a suffix as is added. Thus, $\bar{a}l$, a man; $\bar{a}l$ -as, the man. Both bases are then inflected in exactly the same way. The final as in $\bar{a}l$ -as corresponds to Tamil an.

The usual case suffixes are, accusative n; dative $g\bar{e}$; ablative $t\bar{\imath}$; genitive gahi; locative $n\bar{u}$.

The dative and the accusative are usually distinguished in the same way as in other connected languages. The two cases are sometimes confounded in the south, in Bamra, Rairakhol, Sambalpur, and Raigarh. This state of affairs is probably due to Aryan influence. Compare Gōṇḍī.

The dative suffix $g\bar{e}$ must be compared with Kanarese ge, Telugu ki, ku. It also occurs in the form $k\bar{e}$. The final vowel is long. The Kurukhs have come into their present home from the Bhojpuri country, and it is not improbable that the form of the dative suffix has been influenced by the Bhojpuri $k\bar{e}$.

The accusative suffix is n, an, or in. The form n is used after vowels; in after definite masculine bases ending in as and after the plural suffix ar. In other words the accusative ends in an. In Bamra, Sarangarh, and Rairakhol we also find a fuller

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form nu. Compare Kanarese annu, Telugu ni and nu. The occasional use of the accusative as a dative is due to Aryan influence.

The suffix of the ablative is $t\bar{\imath}$. An n is inserted before $t\bar{\imath}$ in words ending in a vowel, and often also in other cases. This n is always preceded by the same vowel as in the accusative. The ablative can therefore practically be formed from the accusative by adding $t\bar{\imath}$. The n which precedes $t\bar{\imath}$ in such cases is, however, different from the suffix of the accusative and must be compared with the n in ablative suffixes such as Tamil inxu, inde, Kanarese inda, and so on. The suffix $t\bar{\imath}$ itself is apparently connected with Kui tai. The suffix $t\bar{\imath}$ is often added to gus, with. Thus, $\bar{a}l$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{a}l$ -gus- $t\bar{\imath}$, from a man.

An instrumental is formed by adding $tr\bar{\iota}$ or $tr\bar{\iota}$. This suffix seems to be connected with Telugu $t\bar{\iota}$ da, Tamil and Kanarese $\bar{\iota}$ du, with. The initial t in the ablative and instrumental suffixes is, therefore, probably identical with the inflexional increment d, tt in Kanarese, Tamil, etc. Compare Kanarese mara-d-alli, Tamil mara-tt-il, in a tree.

The genitive suffix gahi has several other forms. We find ghi, $gh\bar{e}$, $g\bar{e}$, $k\bar{e}$, \bar{e} , hi, and i. Ghi is for instance used in Patna State; $gh\bar{e}$ in Rairakhol and Sarangarh; $g\bar{e}$ in Pal Lahera and Bamra; $k\bar{e}$ in Bamra, Rairakhol, Sarangarh, and Raigarh; \bar{e} in Rairakhol; hi in Sarangarh, and i in Raigarh. The corresponding form in Malto is $k\bar{i}$. The forms gahi, ghi, $g\bar{e}$, $k\bar{e}$, and $k\bar{i}$ are only varieties of the same suffix. Bishop Caldwell has compared the Telugu yokka and the Hindōstānī $k\bar{a}$, $k\bar{i}$. It would be more natural to think of Bhojpurī $k\bar{a}i$, and it is quite probable that this suffix has influenced Kurukh gahi. The parallel forms \bar{e} , hi, and i seem to show that the original suffix only consisted of a vowel. The initial g or k may be due to the influence of Bhojpurī though its origin is possibly different. There is in many Dravidian languages a suffix gu, ku. Thus, Tamil pada-gu, a boat; kira-ngu, a root, etc. It is possible that the existence of such a suffix has materially strengthened the influence of the Bhojpurī suffix.

The locative suffix $n\bar{u}$ corresponds to Malto $n\bar{o}$ and Telugu nu in inta-nu, in the house, etc.

In the vocative the suffix \bar{o} , ay, or $ay\bar{o}$ is added. Thus, \bar{e} $urbay\bar{o}$, ana $urbay\bar{o}$, O master. The vocative singular of feminine nouns ends in ai, and the interjection ana is changed to anai. Thus, anai mukkai, O woman. When women talk to women the prefix ana becomes $\bar{a}n$ in the singular, and $an\bar{e}$ in the plural. Thus, $\bar{a}n$ $\underline{kh}ai$, O daughter; $an\bar{e}$ $\underline{kh}aiguthiar$ - \bar{o} , O daughters.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not differ in form from nouns. Thus, mechā, height, and high. Nouns denoting qualities and verbal nouns are freely used as adjectives. Thus, pannā, iron; pannā taṛṛē, iron sword; onnā, eating; onnā ālō, eatable things. In other cases adjectives are formed from nouns by adding antā, being in, or the Aryan loan-word lekh'ā, like. Thus, ull-antā nalakh, daily work; khēsō lekh'ā kichrī, a blood-like, i.e., reddish, garment. Compare also Relative participles, below. Leka is used in the same way in Mundārī.

Adjectives are not inflected unless they are used as nouns, in which case they take the usual case suffixes.

Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative. Thus, urbas $j\tilde{o}\underline{k}\underline{h}as$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{o}h\bar{a}$ taldas, the-master the-servant-from great is; $\bar{a}s$ ormar- $t\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{o}h\bar{a}$ talyas, he all-from great is.

Numerals.-The first numerals are :-

- 1. ort, masculine and feminine; ortos, definite masculine; ond and ontā, neuter.
- 2. irb, definite irbar, masculine and feminine; end, neuter.
- 3. nub, definite nubar, masculine and feminine; mund, neuter.
- 4. naib, definite naibar, masculine and feminine; nākh, neuter.

The numerals for 'five' and following are borrowed from Aryan dialects.

Ort, ond, one, must be compared with Tamil oru, onru; Telugu okadu, ondu. The Korava dialect of Tamil has ort, ond, just as Kurukh.

The final b in irb, two; nub, three; naib, four, must be compared with v in the corresponding Tamil forms. Thus, irbar, two, is identical with Tamil iruvar. Kanarese has ibbaru which seems to be derived from a form such as irbar. The neuter form end seems to correspond to Telugu and vulgar Tamil rendu. Compare also Tamil irandu, Kanarese eradu.

Nubar, three, corresponds to Tamil $m\bar{u}var$, Kanarese $m\bar{u}varu$. The initial n is probably due to the desire to differentiate the original labial m from the following b. The neuter $m\bar{u}nd$ is most closely connected with Tamil $m\bar{u}nru$, $m\bar{u}ndru$, $m\bar{u}ndu$.

Naibar, four, corresponds to Tamil $n\bar{a}lvar$, Kanarese $n\bar{a}lvaru$. The corresponding neuter $n\bar{a}\underline{k}\underline{h}$ most closely agrees with Kanarese $n\bar{a}lku$, Telugu $n\bar{a}lugu$.

It will be seen that the numerals are more closely connected with the corresponding forms in Tamil and Kanarese than with those in Telugu.

The words $g\bar{o}t\bar{a}$ and $ot\bar{a}$ or otang, piece, are often added to numerals; thus, end- $g\bar{o}t\bar{a}$ and end- $ot\bar{a}$, two pieces.

Ordinals are formed by adding antā, ntā, or tā; thus, endtā, second; mūndtā, third; nākhtā, fourth. 'First' is mundtā; compare Tamil mudal, Telugu modata, first.

Pronouns.—The personal pronoun of the first person is $\bar{e}n$, plural $\bar{e}m$ and $n\bar{a}m$. Compare Old Telugu $\bar{e}nu$, I; $\bar{e}mu$, $n\bar{e}mu$, we; Old Tamil $y\bar{a}n$ and $n\bar{a}n$, I; $y\bar{a}m$, $n\bar{a}m$, we; Old Kanarese $\bar{a}n$, $y\bar{a}n$, I; $\bar{a}m$, we. The form $\bar{e}m$ excludes, and $n\bar{a}m$ includes, the person addressed. In this respect Kurukh agrees with Tamil, Telugu, etc., as against Kanarese.

Nīn, thou; nīm, you; tān, self; tām, selves, have the same forms as in Old Kanarese.

The possessive pronouns are eihai, my; emhai, our; ninhai, thy; nimhai, your; tanhai, plural tamhai, own. Before nouns denoting relationship, however, abbreviated forms are used, and such words are very seldom used without such a prefixed possessive. The abbreviated forms are identical with the base which appears before the locative suffix $n\bar{u}$. The final consonant is, however, assimilated to the following sound in various ways, and an e is changed to i when the following syllable contains an i or y. Thus, embas, my, or our, father; $iny\bar{o}$, my mother; tandas, his son; $n\bar{e}k$ tambas, whose father, etc. A similar set of pronouns is used as prefixes in High Tamil, viz., em and nam, our; um, your; and tam, their. Compare Introduction (p. 293).

With regard to the demonstrative pronouns, Kurukh agrees with Telugu in using the same form for the feminine and neuter singular. As, he, and $\bar{a}d$, she, it, are also apparently most closely connected with Telugu $v\bar{a}du$, he; adi, she, it. Compare Tamil $ava\underline{n}$, he; adu, it; Kanarese avanu, he; adu, it. $Abr\bar{a}$, those things, on the other hand, corresponds to Kanarese avugalu, Tamil aveigal.

 $N\bar{e}$, who? is only used for masculine and feminine nouns, but is itself neuter. Thus, $n\bar{e}$ barchā, who came? $\bar{E}k\bar{a}$, which? is used as an adjective; thus, $\bar{e}k\bar{a}$ ālas barchas, what

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man came? \bar{E} - $k\bar{a}$ is probably a compound, consisting of the interrogative adjective \bar{e} and an interrogative particle $k\bar{a}$.

Endr, what? endra, what? of what kind?

The interrogative pronouns are made indefinite by adding the indefinite particle im. Thus, $\bar{e}k'am$, anyone; indr'im, anything, etc.

Verbs.—Nouns and adjectives, including participles, are often used as verbs. Thus, urban, I am master; urbai, thou art master; id puddō, this will be too short; nīn kōhai, thou art great; hechkā, bound; hechkāchā, it was bound.

The usual verbal noun ends in $n\bar{a}$ and is regularly inflected. Thus, $esn\bar{a}$, the breaking, to break. It has already been remarked that such verbal nouns can be used as adjectives; thus, $onn\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}l\bar{o}$, eatable things; $mu\bar{n}jrn\bar{a}$ $ujjn\bar{a}$, perishable life. An adjectival participle used in connexion with the word $b\bar{v}r\bar{i}$, time, takes the suffix \bar{o} ; thus, $\bar{o}n\bar{o}$ $b\bar{v}r\bar{i}$, eating time. This \bar{o} is probably identical with the suffix \bar{u} which forms nouns of agency and relative participles of the present tense; thus, is'us, the breaker; $\bar{v}r\bar{u}$ $\bar{u}las$, a seeing man, a man who sees. The suffix of the past relative participle is $k\bar{a}$; thus, $R\bar{a}n\bar{c}h\bar{i}-n\bar{u}$ $kundr-k\bar{a}$ khaddas, the boy who was born at Ranchi. This form is also commonly used as a noun; thus, $\bar{u}nk\bar{a}$, 'said' and 'word.'

Other nouns and participles are formed directly from the base. Thus, $\underline{kh}\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ or $\underline{kh}\bar{a}p\bar{a}\cdot g\bar{e}$, in order to tend; $esn\bar{u}$, esnum, $esn\bar{u}t\bar{i}$, and $esn\bar{u}tim$, in the act of breaking, breaking.

The conjunctive participle ends in $\bar{a}r$, and the particles $k\bar{\imath}$ and $dar\bar{a}$ may be added. Thus, $es'\bar{a}r$, $es'\bar{a}r$ $k\bar{\imath}$, and $es'\bar{a}r$ $dar\bar{a}$, having broken. Usually, however, the ordinary tenses are used instead. Thus, es'on ka'on, I will-break will-go, I will break and go; $\bar{e}n$ eskan ki (or $dar\bar{a}$) barchkan, having broken I came. A is used instead of $k\bar{\imath}$ in Pal Lahera and neighbourhood. See below.

There are three simple tenses, the present, the past, and the future.

The suffix of the present tense is da, third person plural na. Compare the Kanarese present participle ending in uta. When the subject is of the feminine or neuter gender, the d-suffix is only used in the second person and in the first person plural when the person addressed is included.

The usual suffix of the past tense is a ch; compare Telugu chi, si; Gōndī chi, si; and sa in the Korava dialect of Tamil. Transitive verbs, however, commonly drop the ch; compare the suffix i of the conjunctive participle in Kanarese and Telugu. After n the suffix ch becomes j. By adding $k\bar{a}$ to the base of the past tense we get the past participle. The k of this suffix precedes the personal terminations in the first and second persons masculine, and the second person feminine and neuter. Examples are, $ba'an\bar{a}$, to speak; $b\bar{a}chas$, he said: $p\bar{\imath}tn\bar{a}$, to kill; pitkan, I killed; pityas, he killed: $esn\bar{a}$, to break; eskan, I broke; es'as, he broke: $nann\bar{a}$, to do; $na\bar{n}jkan$, I did, etc.

The characteristic of the future is o; compare the u- and v-suffix of Tamil and Kanarese. Thus, es'on, I shall break.

The persons differ for gender. The only exception is the future where there is only a difference in the third person singular. The singular neuter is also used for the plural neuter. The first and third persons feminine are only used in the conversation of women among themselves. In conversation with men the masculine forms are used instead.

The personal terminations are as follows:-

First person. Singular n; plural m.

Second person. Singular ai, fem. and neut. \bar{i} ; plural ar, fem. ai, neuter \bar{i} .

Third person. Singular as, fem. and neut. \bar{i} , past \bar{a} ; plural ar, fem. ai, neut. \bar{i} , and \bar{a} . The neuter termination is dislectically d on t. See

 \bar{a} , and \bar{a} . The neuter termination is dialectically d or t. See below.

The termination of the first person plural when the person addressed is included is at.

It will be seen that the personal terminations are mainly identical with those used in Kanarese and connected languages.

The imperative ends in \bar{a} ; thus, $es'\bar{a}$, break. The feminine singular and the neuter imperative ends in ai; thus, es'ai, break. The plural imperative in the talk of women to women ends in \bar{e} ; thus, $n\bar{i}m$ $es'\bar{e}$, break ye.

A polite imperative is formed by adding $k\bar{e}$ to the base; thus, $es'k\bar{e}$, please break. Other tenses are formed by means of auxiliaries.

A present definite is formed by adding l to the infinitive in \bar{a} and conjugating like an ordinary present. Thus, $es'\bar{a}-l-dan$, I am breaking. Another present definite and an imperfect are formed from the infinitive ending in \bar{a} by adding the Bihārī verb $l\bar{a}gab$, inflected as a Kurukh verb.

It has already been mentioned that adjectives and participles can be conjugated as ordinary verbs. Thus, the past participle eskā, broken, is inflected as follows:—

Sing. 1. eskan, f. iskin. Plur. 1. eskam, f. iskim.

2. eskai, f. & n. iskī.

2. eskar, f. eskai, n. iskī.

3. eskas, f. & n. iskī.

3. eskar, f. eskai, n. iskī.

By adding the present and past tenses of verbs meaning 'to be' to such forms we obtain a perfect and a pluperfect. Thus, ās eskas bē'edas, he has broken; ēn eskan ra'chkan, I had broken. The literal meaning of such forms is 'he is a man who has broken,' 'I was a man who has broken,' respectively.

Kurukh possesses a passive voice, formed by adding r to the base. Thus, $esrn\bar{a}$, to be broken. The passive verb is regularly conjugated. Thus, esrdan, I am broken; esr'kan, I was broken; esr'on, I shall be broken.

Causative verbs are formed by adding $t\bar{a}$ ana, to the base. $T\bar{a}$ a becomes $t\bar{o}$ in the future, and often $t\bar{a}$ in the past. Thus, $est\bar{a}$ adan, I cause to break; $est\bar{a}$ achkan or $est\bar{a}chkan$, I caused to break; $est\bar{o}$ on, I shall cause to break.

Other causatives are formed by adding d or $b\bar{a}'an\bar{a}$ to the base; thus, $onn\bar{a}$, to eat; $ondn\bar{a}$, to feed: $sikhrn\bar{a}$, to learn; $sikh\bar{a}b\bar{a}'an\bar{a}$, to teach.

Kurukh has no proper negative verb. *Mal*, *mal'ā*, or *mallā*, not, is simply prefixed to the ordinary tenses. Thus, *mal'ā eskan*, I did not break; *mal chich'as*, he did not give. In the imperative *ambā*, fem. *ambai*, *ambē*, is prefixed. Another negative particle is $arg\bar{a}$, $arg\bar{\imath}$, not yet.

There are, besides, three negative verbs which are regularly inflected. They are malaan, malyan, or malkan, I am not; balnā, not to know; and polnā, not to be able.

The prohibitive ambā is sometimes also inflected; thus, ās ambdas bardas-nekk'ā, he shall not come.

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In a similar way $arg\bar{a}$, not yet, may be conjugated, in which case the verb itself is put in the infinitive ending in \bar{a} . Thus, $\bar{a}s$ argas $bar\bar{a}$, he has not yet come.

It is hoped that when the preceding remarks are borne in mind the reader will be able to easily understand the forms occurring in the specimens. For further details Mr. Hahn's grammar, mentioned under Authorities, should be consulted.

The grammatical sketch which follows represents the Kurukh spoken in Ranchi, Palamau, and Singbhum, and probably also in Manbhum, from which district no materials have been forwarded. The dialect spoken in Hazaribagh is apparently also identical. Several lists of Standard Words and Phrases have been forwarded from that latter district, but all were so much mixed with Aryan words and forms that it would have been useless to print them. The best one was stated to represent the language of the Korwās, who in Hazaribagh are Kurukhs by clan. It agrees well with the grammatical sketch printed above.

Of the three specimens printed below, the two first have come from Ranchi, and the Rev. Ferd. Hahn, the well-known author of the Kurukh Grammar, has been good enough to prepare them. The third specimen has been forwarded from Singbhum. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, hailing from Palamau, will be found on pp. 647 and ff., below.

KURUKH SKELETON GRAMMAR.

I.-NOUNS.-Al, a man; ālas, the man; mukkā, a woman; allā, a dog.

	8	ingular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	āl.	ālas.	ālar.	mukkā.	mukkar.	allā.	allā-guṭhi.
Acc.	ālasin.		ālarin.	mukkan.	mukkarin.	allan.	allā-guṭhin.
Dat.	āl-gē.	ālas-gē.	ālar-gē.	mukkā-gē.	mukkar-gē.	allā-gē.	allā-guṭhi-gē.
Abl.	āl-tī.	ālas-tī.	ālar-tī.	mukkantī.	mukkar-ti.	allā-tī, allantī.	allā-guṭhi(n)tī.
Gen.	āl-gahi.	āl-gahi. ālas-gahi. ālar-gahi. āl-nū. ālas-nū. ālar-nū.		mukkā-gahi.	mukkar-gahi.	allā-gahi.	allā-guṭhi-gahi.
Loc.	āl-nū.			mukkā-nū.	mukkar-nū.	allā-nū.	allā-guṭhi-nū.

II.-PRONOUNS.

	I.	We, exclusive.	We, inclusive,	Thou.	You.	Self.	Selves
Nom.	ēn.	ēm.	nān.	nīn.	nīm.	tān.	tām.
Acc.	engan.	eman.	naman.	ningan.	niman.	tangan.	taman.
Dat.	eṅgā(-gē)	emā(-gē).	naṅgā(-gē).	niṅgā(-gē).	nimā(-gē).	taṅgā•gē.	$tam\bar{a}(-g\bar{e}).$
Gen.	enhai.	emhai.	nanhai, namhai.	ninhai.	nimhai.	tanhai.	tamhai.
Loc.	en-nū.	em-nū.	nam-nū, naṅnū.	niñ-nữ.	nim-nū.	tan-nū.	tam-nū.

		Cl. Ti	т	HEY.	
	He.	She, It.	Masc. and fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	ās.	ād.	ār.	abṛā.	In the same way are inflected is, this, fem. id, plur. ir,
Acc.	āsin.	ādin.	āris.	abran.	ibṛā; hūs, that there (far off), fem. hūd, plur. hūr, hubṛā. The forms ā, that;
Dat.	ās∙gē.	ādi-gē.	ār-gē.	abrā-gē.	 i, this; \(\vec{v}\), that there, are used as adjectives before singular nouns. Before
Abl.	$\bar{a}s(in)$ - $t\bar{\imath}$.	$\bar{\alpha}di(n)$ - $t\bar{\imath},\bar{\alpha}d$ - $t\bar{\imath}.$	ār(in)-tī.	abrantī.	plural nouns the neuter plural is used as an adjective.
Gen.	ās-gahi.	ādi-gahi.	ār-gahi.	abrā-gaki.	
Loc.	ās-nū.	$\bar{a}d(i)$ - $n\bar{u}$.	ār-nū.	abṛā-nū.	

	Who ?	Whatf	Any one.	Anything.	
Nom.	nē. ¹	endr, endrā.	ēk'ām, nēk'ām.	endr, endr'ādim.	Ēkdā, what? which? is inflected as endrā. The same
Acc.	nēkan.	endran.	nēk'ānim.	endr'ānim.	is the case with ēbaggī, how many, how much? ēodā, how many ones? etc.
Dat.	nēkā∙gē.	end $r(\bar{a})$ - $g\bar{e}$.	nēk'ām-gē, nēkā-gem.	endr'ām-gē, endr'im-gē.	
Abl.	nēk(an-)tī.	$endr(\bar{a})$ - $t\bar{\imath}$, $endran$ - $t\bar{\imath}$.	nēk'antī.	endr'am-tī.	
Gen.	nēkhai.	endr(ā)-gahi.	nēkhai-dim.	endr'ām-gahi, endr'im-gahi.	
Loc.	nēk-nū.	$endr(\bar{a})$ - $n\bar{u}$.	nēk'im, nēkhai-nūm.	endr'ām-nū.	

 $^{{}^{}t}N\bar{e}$ is used for masculine and feminiae nouns, but is itself neuter. The genitive is $n\bar{e}k$ before nouns denoting relationship.

III.-VERBS.-

A .- Finite Verb .- Esnā, to break.

Verbal nouns.—Esnā, the breaking; es'ā, es'ā-gē, to break.

Relative participle.— Isū, a breaker; eskā, broken.

Adverbial participle.—Esnū, esnūtī, emphatic esnum, esnūtīm, breaking; es'ā khane, on breaking.

Conjunctive participle.—Es'ār, es'ār kī, having broken.

	Present.	Past.	Future.	Imperative.	
Sing. 1. 2. 3.	esdan, fem. es'ēn. esdai, f. isdī. esdas, f. is'ī.	eskan, f. es'an. eskai, f. iskī es'as, f. esā.	es'on. es'oe. es'ōs, f. es'ō.	es'ā, f. es'ai.	The neuter verb has the same form as the feminine singular; thus, nīm iskī, you broke; abrā is'ī, they break.
Plur. 1 excl.	esdam, f. es'ēm.	eskam, f. es'am.	es'om.		
1 incl.	esdat.	eskat.	es'ōt.		
2.	esdar, f. esdai.	eskar, f. eskai.	es'or.	es'ā, f. es'ē.	
3.	esnar, f. esnai.	es'ar, f. es'ai.	es'ōr.		

Present Definite.—Es'āldan or es'ālagdan, I am breaking.

Imperfect.—Es'ālakkan, fem. es'ālagyan, I was breaking.

Perfect.—Eskan bë'edan, fem. iskin bë'ën, I have broken; the principal verb is inflected as the ordinary past in the second person. The first person plural is eskan bë'edam, fem. iskin bë'ëm; the third person is, singular eskas bë'edas, fem. iski bi'ë; plural eskar bë'enar, fem. eskai bë'enai.

Pluperfect.—Eskan ra'chkan, fem. iskin ra'ch'an, I had broken. Other persons as in the perfect.

Formation of the past tense.

	·	Past.	
Vertal noun.	Masc.	Fem.	
ānnā, ay.	ānkan.	ānyan.	Irregular are ka'anā, go ; kirkan, I went ;
barnā, come.	barchkan.	barch'an.	kēras, he went: hō'onā, to take away; ochkan, I took away: uinā, to plough;
chi'inā, give.	chichkan.	chich'an.	usskan, I ploughed: <u>kh</u> ō'enā, to measure; <u>kh</u> ojkan, I measured: <u>kh</u> ossnā, to dig;
nannā, do.	nanjkan	nanj'an.	<u>kh</u> ottkan, I dug: p\u00f6en\u00e4, to rain; poss\u00e4, it rained: n\u00e4\u00fcn, to pain; nu\u00fa\u00e4\u00e4, it pained: onn\u00e4, to drink; ond\u00e4\u00e4n, I drank, etc.

B.—Auxiliary and defective verbs.

	I am.	I am.	I am not.
ing. 1.	bē'edan, f. bē'ēn.	taldan, talyan, f. tal'ēn, talyēn.	malkan, f. malyan.
2.	bē'edai, f. bī'idī.	taldai, talyai, f. taldī, talyī.	malkai, f. malkī.
3.	bē'edas, f. bī'ī.	taldas, talyas, f. tal'ī, talyā.	malkas, f. malkī.
Plur. 1 exel.	bē'edam, f. bē'ēm.	taldam, talyam, f. tal'sm, talysm.	malkam.
1 incl.	bē'edat.	taldat, talyat.	malkat.
2.	bē'edar, f. bē'edai.	taldar, talyar, f. taldai, talyai.	malkar, f. malkai.
3.	bē'enar, f. bē'enai.	talnar, talyar, f. talnai, talyai.	malkar, f. malkai.

Maldan and malyan, I am not, are inflected as taldan, talyan. Hākdan, I am; and ra'adan, I am, I remain, are regular. Ra'anā is inflected in all tenses.

Passive voice.—Formed by adding r to the base and conjugating throughout. Thus, esrdan, I am broken; esr'kan, I was broken; esr'on, I shall be broken.

Causal verbs.—Formed by adding ta'a. Thus, esta'adan, I cause to break; past esta'achkan or estachkan, future esta'on.

Particles.—Mal, mal'ā, malla, not; ambā, f. ambāi, ambē, do not; argā, argī, not yet; im, dim, d, emphatic; nē, anē, indefinite; kā, interrogative, etc.

By adding nekk'ā to the present tense a kind of conditional is effected. Thus, esdan nekk'ā, I may, I am allowed to, break.

[No. 24.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. Ferd. Hahn, 1899.)

(DISTRICT RANCHI.)

Ort ālas-gahi irb khaddar ra'char. Sannis tam-basin ānyas, 'anā One man-of twosons The-younger were. his-father-to said, ban, urmin khattar enhai khattarkā ra'ī adin chi'ikē.' Khanē ās allhaving-divided myshareisthat give-please.' Then hetanhai ujjnā-gahi ōr-guthin irbar-gē khattyas chich'as. Jokk ullā argi hisliving-of goods two-to divided gave. Few days not-yet mannum sannis tanhai urmin khondas . darā gechchhā being in-indeed the-younger his allhaving-gathered alsofar tarā kēras arā aiyam bhãrvā ujjnā-tī tanhai urmin mulkhas. towards wentand there-indeed riotous living-from his alldrowned. Ās urmin muñjā-<u>kh</u>achchyas <u>kha</u>nē $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ rājī-nū kīrā mañjā arā ās Heallspend-finished then that country-in hunger wasandhe kīrā-sār'ā helras. Khanē ās attrantā ort addiyas gusan hungry-to-feel began. Then he country-of one land-proprietor with körchas; ās āsin tanhai khall-nū kiss khāpā taiyas. Ās ēkā uturbãran entered; he himhisfield-in swine to-feed sent. Hewhich husks kiss-gutthī mokhā-lagyā at-tī tanhai kulan urd'ā biddyas, mundā nēhõ eating-were that-from hisbellyto-fill sought, yet anybodychiā-lagyar. ās-gē \mathbf{mal} Khanē akkh-ondras darā bāchas, 'em-bas-gusan him-to giving-was. Then reason-brought alsosaid, 'my-father-with ēõdā lassiyar ra'anar, ār-gusan baggī onnā mōkhnā engērnā-lekh'ā how-many servants are, them-with muchdrinking eating remaining-like ra'ī, arā kīŗā-tī ēn khēā-lagdan. Ēn chō'on darā em-bas-gusan is, and Ι hunger-from dying-am. I will-arise alsomy:father-near kā'on āsin ān'on. " anā ban ēn merkhā-gahi birdō arā ninhai will-go and him will-say, " O father 1 heaven-of againstandthychhamhē gunhā nañjkan bē'edan. Arā mundbhārē ninhai khadd bā'arnā before sindidam. And henceforth thyto-be-called 80n lekh'ā malyan. Engan ninhai lassiyar-nū ortos lekh'ā uiyā."' Antile ās likenot-am. Me thylabourers-in like one take." Then he chōchas darā tam-bas-gusan barchas. Pahe ās gechchham ra'chas khanē alsoarosehis-father-near Butcame. hefar 2008 then

soggāras arā bongas darā āsin khimbyas $dar\bar{a}$ tam-bas īryas darā \sin embraced alsohimalsoalsopitied andran his-father him saw ēn merkhā birdō āsin ānyas, 'anā ban, arā chumkhyas. Antilē tandas I heaven ٠о father, against and kissed. Then his-son him-to said, bē'edan. Ēn mundbhārē ninhai khadd nañjkan gunhā nin-gusan to-be-called didam. henceforth thysonsinthee-before tam-bas tanhai jõkhārin ānyas, 'urmin-tī lekh'ā malyan.' Mundā dav his-father his servants-to said, all-from But goodlike not-am. āsin bāñchā; ās-gahi khekkhā-nū muddī kichrin ondr'ā arā arā $ar\bar{a}$ him put-on; and hishand-on ring and clothbring andatt'ā. Arā dārharkā gundi-khaddan ondr'ar-ki erbā, arā khedd-nū jutā feet-on And fatted cow-young having-brought kill, shoesput. andkechkas riryār'ōt. Aunge engdas ra'ch'as, antilē nām ōnōt $dar\bar{a}$ shall-drink alsoshall-rejoice. Because my-son dead then we was. ebserkas ra'ch'as, arā khakkhras.' Khanē ujjyas; ās ār riryār'ā was-found.' came-alive ; he lost was, andThenthey to-rejoice helrar. began.

khall-nū ra'ch'as. Ās Mundā kõhas erpā $\mathbf{hedd}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$ ãrsyas darā assnan the-elder field-in Hehouse Butwas. near arrivedalso playing jõkhar-tī darā nālnan menjas. Khanē ās ortosin tan-gusan eddas heThen servants-from dancing heard. onehimself-near also called'ender man'i.?' Ās āsin 'nindis ānyas, darā menjas, barchas arā · what is? Hehim-to said, 'thy-brother asked, camealsoanddārharkā guṇḍī-khaddan irbyas, āsin kore-korem nimbas khakkhyas.' fattedcow-young prepared, him safe-and-sound found. thy-father kōhas khisāras ūlā kōr'ā malā Antilē $ar\bar{a}$ biddyas. Khanē the-elder inside to-enter Then got-angry and notsought. Then tambas urkhas darā āsin gohrāras. Antilē ās tambāsin entreated. his-father came-out alsohimThen hehis-father-to iũ 'ērā. ninhai ānā-kirtāchas, ēn chānentī nalakh nandan say-returned, I these-many thyservice 'see, years-from doiklāhõ ninhai pēskan malā esskan; annuhõ arā nīn engagē order broke ; that-in-even and ener-even thy not thou me-to iklāhõ ontā bokran malā chichchkai, ēkattī ēn-hõ enhai onekidnotgavest, which-from I-also once-even my sangitar khus-mār'on. Mundā nindas ganē īs bhãrvātī friends withmerry-might-make. Butriotousness-with thisthy-son tanhai urmin mulkhas darā barchas, khanē nīn ās-gē dārharkā his allspent alsocame, then thou him-for fatted gundi-khaddan irbkai bē'edai.' Tambas āsin ānyas, 'anā kō, cow-young killedest art. His-father him-to said, dear

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

sagar-<u>kh</u>anē en-ganē ra'adai, arā enhai urmī nin-gā ninhaid-im tal'i. thou-indeed alwaysme-with art, and mine thine-indeed allis. **P**ahe ningāgē-hõ khus-mārnā arā dav jiyā-tī ra'anā Butthee-to-also merry-to-make andgood heart-from to-remain chār ra'i ī īgē nindis kechchkas ra'ch'as, antilē necessary isdeadbecausethisthy-brother then was, ujjyas; ās ebserkas ra'ch'as, khakkhras.' arā revived; he lostwas, was-found. and

[No. 25.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT RANCHI.)

(Rev. Ferd. Hahn, 1897.)

Lugu pachchō nād-gahi khīrī.

Lugu old-woman demon-of tale.

nāmē Lugu ra'ch'ā. Aiyā Lugu Onță partā-gahi pachchō There One mountain-of nameLugu was. Luguold-woman Ā akh'ā-lagyā pachchō nēkan ār bharārnūtī Lugu ra'ā-lagvā. Thatold-woman whom remembering-was divining living-was. theyLugu aiyā ārin sattē mã<u>kh</u>ā kālā-lagyar, arā nād ullā partā arā the-demon going-were, andthere them seven days nights mountain and kandō uiyā-lagyā, $ar\bar{a}$ ārgē okkäge nerran kam'ar tan-guyā her-with keeping-was, andthem-to to-sit serpent stoolhaving-made atkhan alkhṛā kamchā aŭrā-gahi darā mökhā-gē chiā-lagyā, arā andwoodapple-of leaves parched-rice madealsoeating-for giving-was, chiā-lagyā. kam'ar ōnā-gē Arā ibsan mandi Arā chiā-lagyā. rice having-made eating-for giving-was. And giving-was. And smalldudhī kamchā chiā-lagyā. sijhū-gahi gaddan darā ōnā-gē Arā sattē milkmadealso drinking-for giving-was. And juice seven Sijhu-of mantr chiā-lagyā, mäkhä khachkanti ujgō arā ullā mani ār-gē finishing-from them-to magic spellgiving-was, and nights to-be days edkē. nalakh kā maldav manō. holē engan holē 'indr'im ānā-lagyā, evilwill-come, then mecall. then business 'any saying-was, dēõŗā pollor.' $Ar\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $h\tilde{o}$ nas'ā kālon, $ar\bar{a}$ ēn to-hurt will-be-unable.' And divination andany-one shall-go, Ι Arā ār-ĭm taiyā-lagyā. nannā-gahi bangi chiar And having-given sending-was. they-indeed magic-power making-of nanā-lagyar, Lugu-pachchō-gahi chēlar ārin dēorā-jhuppā arā bar'ar andthem Lugu-old-woman's pupilshaving-come sorcery making-were, ā nādan-im innā-Arā bāch-bāch elchā-lagyar. Ār-ganē pollor. that demon-also to-day-Them-with Andcalling fearing-were. can-not. adi-gē khēr kiss ērā-gutthin chi'inar. dēõŗā-jhuppar mannar arā gūtī goat-many give. tillsorcerers believe andher-to fowl swine

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

The tale of the female demon Lugu.

On the mountain Lugu there lived a female demon called Lugu. Whenever she thought of anybody, they felt the influence of her thought and went to the mountain Lugu, where the demon kept them for seven days and seven nights. She made stools of serpents and gave them to sit on, and the parched rice she gave them to eat was made of the leaves of wild apple-trees and the rice was made of small herbs. The juice of Sijhū (a kind of Euphorbia) was made into milk which she gave them to drink. After seven days and nights she taught them a magic spell and said to them, 'if any need or evil should befall you, then call on me, and I shall come, and nobody will be able to do you harm.' And she gave them power of divination and sent them away.

On returning home they began to exercise their magic power. They were called Lugu's disciples and were much feared, and nobody could do anything against them. Even to this day sorcerers worship that demon and bring her offerings of fowls, swine and goats.

[No. 26.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

SPECIMEN III.

(DISTRICT SINGBHUM.)

Ēn īdnā karam-parab-nu \bar{a} khr \bar{a} dandi pārā-gē kērkan ra'chkan. I this-year Karam-festival-in Akhrasong singing-for went was. Ort unkhkā ālas engan ākhrā-nu daņdī \mathbf{mal} pārā-chichchas. Ā-bīrī One drunken man Akhra-in song notto-sing-gave. That-time ihūmar bēchnā pellar arā dandi pārū jõkhar āsin ' nin āniyar, jhūmar playing girlssong singing andmen him-to said, ' thou endrnā mal pārā-chīdai?' Īṅgē unkhkā ālas engan tempā mūnd why to-sing-givest?" Thence drunken manme sticks three ēōkh-nu lauchas. breast-in beat.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

This year I had gone to Akhra to sing songs at the Karam festival. An old man came and would not allow me to sing. Then girls playing jhūmar and men singing songs came along and said to him, 'why do you not allow him to sing?' Then the drunken man struck me three times in the breast with a stick.

In the Jashpur State Kurukh is locally known as Khendröi. The number of speakers has been estimated at 20,000.

The beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows shows that the so-called Khendröi only differs from the Kurukh of the neighbouring Ranchi in unimportant details. The abrupt pronunciation of vowels, separated from following sounds, is very marked; thus, $chi'\bar{a}'$, give; $uddt\bar{o}'d$ - $an\bar{e}$, he would have filled. The latter form seems to contain an indefinite particle $n\bar{e}$ or $an\bar{e}$ and the form $uddt\bar{o}'d$, corresponding to Standard $urt\bar{o}\bar{o}s$, he will fill. The suffix d will meet us again in Pal Lahera and neighbourhood, and properly belongs to the third person neuter.

[No. 27.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(JASHPUR STATE.)

sãnni dui-jhan kukkō khaddar rahchar. Aur ālas-ghī Ontā man-of two-persons malechildren were. And younger One 'sagrō māl-jāl chi'ā.' tāmbās-gusan enghai bāntan engagē ānias, tangdas said, 'all propertyshareme-to give.' his-father-with my khattias. Jokk-im ullā-nū sanni tangdas tanghai dhannan Aur ār-gē them-to he-divided. Few-only days-in his-son And his property younger tanghai chij-basutan jamā nañjas aur dhēr gechchhā muluk kēras, andfar country went, things-goods together madevery his nañjas. Aur jab jamā aiyā tanghai chīj-basutan uran-paran aur And there histhings-goods spent-etc. made. whenallandmañjā. bedār akāl Aur ās $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ muluk-nū muñjurā famine became. And he thatcountry-in bigwas-squandered ā rājītā orot ālas-ganē Aur ās kēras aur kalpārā'-helras. to-be-distressed-began. went andthatcountry-of oneman-with And Aur āsin tonkā'-kharā kiss <u>kh</u>āpā-gī taiyas. Aur jē ās jorras. field-to swine feeding-for sent. which was-joined. And he himkhakkhrā khuśī-sē mōkhālgiā ādin hō tanghai kissi hō. kundon eating-were thatwas-got. gladlyhis husks swine even even, külan uddtö'danē. Magar ādin $h\bar{o}$ nē-hō mal chichehar. Tab Butthateven anybody notgave. Then belly would-have-filled. embās-ghī āõdā āõdā ' marrē, hōs mañjā, tab ās ānias, ās-gē sense came, thenhe said, 'alas, my-father-of so-many so-many him-to pūrē jõkhar onnā-tī hō khākkhālnar, ēn iā kīrā'-tī aur servants eating-from even sufficientgetting-are, andΙ herehunger-from khēālgdan. Ēn kā'on āsin chō'on-kī embās gusan aur ān'on, I am-dying. will-arise-and my-father near will-go and him-to will-say, "ē Bhagvān ning-gusan kasūr nañjkan. Akkū bā, ēn gusan aur " O Goddid. Now father, Ι near andthee-near sin ninghai kamiār ninghai khadd ba'a'rnā bēsē malikan. Engan thyto-be-called Mythyservants(-of)son worthy am-not. uiyā." orot-bēsē keep." one-like

The Kurukh spoken in Korea, Sarguja, and Udaipur is probably of the same kind as that illustrated in the preceding pages. No materials are, however, available.

Proceeding southwards we find Kurukh spoken under various names all over the district of Sambalpur. Four thousand individuals have been reported to speak Kurukh, and 6,000 speakers who returned Khariā as their native tongue have turned out to speak the same language. Kisān was returned as spoken by 22,000, and Kōḍā as spoken by 9,000. All or most of these people speak Kurukh. Kisān means 'cultivator,' and kōḍā, 'digger.' Both words, therefore, denote occupation and not language.

Specimens of the so-called Kurukh, and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Kurukh, Khariā, and Kisān have been received from Sambalpur. They show that all these different names connote one and the same language. The only difference is that the so-called Khariā and the so-called Kisān substitute an h for Standard Kurukh kh; thus, khekkhā, Kisān and Khariā hekkhā, a hand. This pronunciation of kh as h is also found in the so-called Kisān of Sarangarh, and in the Kurukh dialects spoken in Raigarh, Pal Lahera, Bamra, and Rairakhol. These dialects are known under the names of Kisān and Khariā.

The specimens received from Sambalpur are not correct. The genders are often confounded. Thus we find $kis\ j\bar{e}\ m\bar{o}\underline{kh}\bar{a}$ -lagiyar, swine what eating-were, where a neuter subject takes the verb in the masculine form. Compare also forms such as $gh\bar{o}r\bar{o}r$, horses; $gh\bar{o}r\bar{i}r$, mares; $all\bar{a}r$, dogs.

The accusative and the dative are often confounded; thus, $\bar{a}sin\ chichchas$, he gave to him. The same is also the case in those dialects in which \underline{kh} is replaced by h, with the exception of the so-called Khariā of Pal Lahera.

The numerals are Aryan. Occasionally, however, we also find ond, one.

The list of words contains forms such as rakkan, I was; rakchas, he was; $k\bar{a}lkai$, thou wentest; $k\bar{a}lchas$, he went.

In other respects the dialect is regular, as will be seen from the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(DISTRICT SAMBHALPUR.)

ra'char. Äur ār-nu sannis kukkō khaddar ālas-gahi dō And malechildrenwere. them-in the-younger man-of twoOne 'bābā. khurjī-gahi jē bãtā engagē manō engān āniās, tāmbāsin father, property-of which his-father-to said. shareme-to will-be me chiā.' Āur ās tänghäe khurjin ār-gē khattias. $Mal\bar{a}$ körhē ullapisā divided. them-to Notgive.' Andhe hisproperty many days afterĀur hurmin jāmā nānjās āur dür rāji-nu kēras. khaddas sanni faralltogether madeand country-in younger son went.And tāhās-nāhās āiā tänghäe khurjin māl-dāu bhōg-nu nānjās. Āur ās enjoyment-in not-good spentproperty made.Andhethere ā-biri ā-rāji-nu körhem urābāchas, kīŗā māñjā, hurmin āur that-country-in that-time heavy famine allwasted.was, andĀur helras. ās ā rājintā kīrā-nu pārā'ā ondgānjhus-gusan ās began. And hethatcountry-of hunger-in to-fall oneinhabitant-near hetänghäe khal-nu kis khāpā-gē Āur taias. āur ās kis kēras, and hehisfield-in swine feeding-for sent. And swine went, ā-chokor-ti tänghäe kūl mōkhā-lagiyar ūŗā'ā-gē biddyās, jē āur filling-for that-husk-from hisbelly eating-were wished, what andchichchas. āsin māl ēkam ālas him not gave. any man

Kurukh is also to some extent spoken in the State of Patna. The dialect was formerly returned as Hō, a form of Kōl, and at the Census of 1901 it was returned as Kisān. Four hundred and seventy-five speakers were returned at the Census of 1891, and 666 in 1901.

The materials forwarded from the district are full of mistakes. The short specimen which follows will, however, be quite sufficient to show that the dialect is ordinary Kurukh. The pronunciation is in some respects different, if the specimen can be trusted.

Thus, i is commonly written for e, u for o, and \bar{u} for \bar{o} . Compare inder, how? inghāe, my; ingan, me; untā, one; $k\bar{a}$ 'un, I shall go; $k\bar{a}$ ' \bar{u} , it will come.

Final \bar{i} is often replaced by \bar{a} ; thus, $gust\bar{a}$, from; $kh\bar{e}pk\bar{a}$, thou abusedst.

The masculine gender is, in the specimen, sometimes used to denote animals.

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is mainly regular. A list of Standard Words and Phrases gives forms such as *emāhe*, our; *nimāhe* and *nimēhã*, your. In the specimen, however, we find *inghāe*, my; *ninghāe*, thy, etc., which are simply various writings for Standard *enhan*, my; *ninhai*, thy.

The conjugation of verbs is also regular. Note forms such as radan, I am; $m\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ -lagdan, I am hearing, used in the speech of the goat and the tiger, respectively.

[No. 29.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(STATE PATNA.)

khār-nū uņţā bokrā amm unā-lagiyā. Ā-bāri asan Unțā unță river-in one goatwater drinking-was. That-time One there onemēiyā-mēitali lakrā barchā. Bokrā-turu lakṛā amm unā-lagī. Lakrā Goat-from above-direction tigerwater tiger came. drinking-was. The-tiger gudurō nanā-lagdī? āniyā, 'aman indrgē ninghāe-gustā bokran the-goat-to said, 'water why muddymaking-art? thy-direction-from barā-lagī.' Bokr-āniyā, 'ēn kīyā radan(sic). gudurō amm $g\bar{a}$ Inghae muddy water coming-is.' The-goat-said, 'I indeed below am. Mygudurō ka'ū?' gustā ēkā-sē Lakrā kathan ammī muddydirection-from water how can-come?' The-tiger thisanswer miñjā-kī tarki ra'chā. Āur āniyā, 'barash-din mañjā nin-d ' year-day having-heard silent remained. Againsaid, was thou-indeed mēnā-lagdan.' 'En-gā, chha mahinā khēbā-lagdī, ādin ēn inghāe that I hearing-am.' ' I-indeed, sixmonths abusing-wast, my bachhar-din-tan inder äkhun?' 'Nin-d kundurkā manjā, mallā shall-know?' birthyear-day-age how 'Thou-indeed was, notninjās khēppar.' Bokrā ī kathan khēpkā, holē nimbas, āur thy-father, thy-grand-father abused.' $The extbf{-}goat$ abusedest, thenthisanswer ortarki ra'chā. Lakrā āniyā, ٠ĩ dősh-ghi miñjā-kī nin having-heard silent remained. The-tiger said, fault-of thou Ī ādi-mēiyā khakkhue.' kathan mińjā-kī lakṛā dand This punishment shalt-receive. answer having-heard the-tiger it-on ārgiyā-kī dharchā mukhkhā. falling seizedate.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time a goat was drinking water in a river, and a tiger came to the same place. The tiger began to drink higher up in the river. Said the tiger, 'why are you making the water muddy? The muddy water comes from you to me.' The goat said, 'I am standing below. How can the muddy water come from me?' Having heard this answer the tiger was silent for a short time. Then he said, 'I am told that you have abused me a year ago.' Said the goat, 'I was born six months ago, how should I be a year old?' 'If you did not abuse me, then your father or grandfather has done it.' On hearing this the goat remained silent. Said the tiger, 'I will punish you for this fault.' So saying he made a jump, seized the goat, and ate it.

$\mathbf{T}\mathbf{h}$	e Kur	ukh	s of	Sara	ngarl	h are	part	ly kr	iown	as I	hāng	gars	and	partly	as	Kisāns
	e revis													•		
	Dhāṅga	rī														604
	Kisān	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		٠	907
													Т	OTAL		1.511

Two specimens of the so-called Dhāngarī have been forwarded from the district. The first, a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, was simply a translation of the English text word for word. 'To them' had for example been translated in- $\bar{a}r$ instead of $\bar{a}rin$. The specimen could not, therefore, be printed. The second specimen has been reproduced in what follows. It is not correct, but it clearly shows that the dialect does not much differ from ordinary Kurukh.

The suffix of the genitive is hi; thus, $hiss\bar{a}$ $hi m\bar{a}l$, i.e. $m\bar{a}l$ -hi $hiss\bar{a}$, the share of the property. This suffix hi corresponds to Standard gahi, ghi. A form such as $\bar{a}lar$, of a man, seems to contain the Oriyā suffix r. Similar forms also occur in Bamra.

We may also note indir instead of Standard endr, what? Compare the Kurukh of Patna.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows.

[No. 30.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(STATE SARANGARH.)

Uņţā	pachagīs	ālar	ē-jhan	<u>kh</u> addar	rahchar,	jō
One	old	$man \cdot of$	several .	sons	were,	who
āpas-nē		din larh				khūb
themselves-amo	ong alwa	ys quarre	lling-were.	Their-fath	er them	much
samjhāchas,	par in	dir-hū	mal mañj	ā. Ās	pīchhā	tangda-
advised,	but anyt	hing-even	not becan	ne. He	at-last	his-son-
bagarin hu	kum chichas	āniyas ta	aṅghā gu s a	n uņţā	bīŗā	kank,
many-to or	der $gave$	said	him near	r one	bundle	sticks,
au <u>kh</u> ō <u>kh</u> ā		ñjas ārin			jōr	
and then	order mo	ide them-t	o one-to,	`good	strength	with
		kank-bīrā			r indir	
break.' Som				roke, bu	t anything	even
mal mañjā,		nē-kē			hēchkāchā,	au
not became,	this-reas	on-that be	$indle ext{-}sticks$	closely	was-bound,	and
•	_	${ m ort}$ ${ m ar{a}lar{e}}$			chalrah.	<u>Khōkhā</u>
bundle-sticks				able not	was.	Then
	• •	ulṭā-nū		,	au uņț	ā uņţā
the-father by	undle-sticks	untying-in	order	gave,	and one	one
		r-gē chichas,	5. Transfer	-nū ādin	_	hukum
stick one o	ne sons-t	to $gave$,	that time	-in that	break-to	order
chichas. Jan			sahaj es'a		tambas	āniyas,
gave. Al	l sons t	hat stick	easily broi	ke. Then	the- $father$	said,
ʻë <u>kh</u> addan		•	Pīssānin	innem nīm	hi mi	it- $\mathbf{m}ar{\mathbf{e}}$
O sons,	unity st	trength see.	And-here	so you	also frien	dship- in
nichaț unțā-				ıkh chō'a		jab
always one-i	in remain,	you anybo	dy not ha	erm will-ra	ise. But	when
nīm alag	•	kā'or, nimh		niman n	nō <u>kh</u> ar (chi'ōr.'
you separate	becoming	go, you	r enemies	you de	vouring wi	ll-give.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

An old man had several sons, who were always quarrelling. The father often remonstrated with them, but in vain. At last he ordered them to bring a bundle of sticks before him, and asked each of them to try with all his strength to break them. They all tried, but in vain, because the sticks were tied closely together, and no single man could

break them. Then the father asked them to untie the bundle, gave each of his sons one stick, and asked them to break them. All the sons did so easily. Said the father, 'observe the strength of unity. If you always keep together in unity, nobody will be able to hurt you. But if you are separated, your enemies will destroy you.'

There are, however, some characteristic points which the dialect shares with the various forms of Kurukh spoken in Raigarh, Pal Lahera, Bamra, and Rairakhol. Thus the use of an h instead of Standard \underline{kh} ; the accusative suffix nu; the use of the accusative instead of the dative; the genitive suffix $gh\bar{e}$ or $g\bar{e}$; the termination t or d of the third person neuter of verbal tenses, and so forth. Some of these characteristics also occurred in Sambalpur.

The details will be found under the various districts. With regard to the so-called Kisān of Sarangarh, they are as follows.

An h is usually, but apparently not always, substituted for Standard \underline{kh} ; thus, $h\bar{a}p\bar{a}$, tend; haddu and $\underline{kh}addu$, son.

 $\tilde{N}j$ becomes $\tilde{n}ch$. Thus, $n\tilde{n}\tilde{n}chas$, he did; $m\tilde{e}\tilde{n}chas$, he asked; $m\tilde{a}\tilde{n}chas$, he became, etc.

The genders are often confounded; thus, bahut din mal kēras, many days did not pass; adin, him; adh-ghe, his, of them.

The accusative sometimes ends in nu instead of in n; thus, dhannu, the property. The suffix of the genitive is $gh\bar{e}$; thus, $tambas-gh\bar{e}$, of his father; $yengh\bar{e}$, my; $ningh\bar{e}$, thy; $adh-gh\bar{e}$, his. In $\bar{a}r-g\bar{e}$, their, $g\bar{e}$ is used instead. It cannot be decided from the materials available whether the final e is long or short. Compare Standard enhai, my; tambas-gahi, of the father.

The short forms of the possessive pronouns are apparently used promiscuously; thus, $t\bar{a}mb\bar{a}s$, my father; $t\bar{a}ngd\bar{a}s$, thy son. Similar forms are also used in Raigarh.

The inflexion of verbs is mainly regular. The various persons are, however, occasionally confounded. Thus, mallyas, I am not; chichkas, thou gavest not. Here the suffix of the third person masculine is also used in the first and second persons.

'I am' is atlan. This form is also used in Bamra, Pal Lahera, and so on.

In $m\bar{o}h\bar{a}liy\bar{a}t$, (the swine) were eating, we find the suffix t of the third person neuter. We will find this suffix again in Rairakhol, and, in the form d, in Bamra and Pal Lahera. Compare the remarks about the dialect of Jashpur above.

The form $n\bar{a}nom$ -an \bar{e} , we should make, contains the same indefinite particle $an\bar{e}$ or $n\bar{e}$ which has already been noted from Jashpur.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(STATE SARANGARH.)

jōrē haddū rāchas. Aur adh-ghē chhōtēs Indrin ālas-gē And man-to twosons were. them-of the-younger Some dhan-nū 'tambasi, hissā ĭetē tambasin tingiyas, yenghe atli tāhē father, property-in which said. share minefather-to ishishattiyā-chichchas. tāhē dhannu Aur engā chiā. Aur āsu ār-gē his divided-gave. And And he them-to property give.' me-to tudiyāchas chhōtē haddu hurmin undīn-addān bahut din mal kēras, allnotyounger son togethergathereddayswent, many gechhā bongas-kēras. āsān luchpan-nü tāhē rāje Aur aur riotousness-in far country ran-went. And there his andkharchī-nanā-chichchas urihā-chichchas. jab āsu hurmin Aur dhannu squandered-gave. Andwhen he allspent-made-gave property dēs-nū dukāl mańchā, aur āsu tang mańchas-kēras. ā destitute became-went. country-in famine became, and he that sahariyā sangē rahchas $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ rājintā unțā kēras Aur āsu aur and country-in citizen stayed And he went that one near taiyas. hallu-nū kissū hāpā-gē āsu ādin Aur Aur ās-gē kēras. sent. him And swine feeding-for hewent. And hisfield-in mōhāliyāt tāhē külü ūŗō, ā uńkū-nū jē kissū āsu belluwould-fill, swine were-eating his husks-in which he thosejab āsu ālasi-hī ad-gē mal chichchas. Aur ās-gē $\bar{e}k\bar{a}$ aur And when hehim-to him-to notgave. man-even and any $y\tilde{a}$ kamiyar-ge tambas-ghē 'nenghē(sic.) āsu tingiyas, barchas. servants-to · my how-many father-of said, came, hehākhrī, aur yēn āsmā bāchhā bānā kul-gē purtā aur and I breadis-got. becoming enough and saved belly-to k'on, tambas-tarā khēdan. $Y\bar{e}n$ chōn aur neṅghē kirē father-towards shall-go, mydie. shall-arise andwith-hunger \boldsymbol{I} sargē-ultānū aur ninghē "ē tambas, yēn āsin tengon, aur thyand" 0 I heaven-against him shall-say, father, and tāngdās tengnā-gē lāg nańchā(sic.) aur ninghē sangē pāp worthy saying-for sindidandthy80% in-presence nanā." āsu Aur barōbar mallyas. kamiyā-kē yēn Engan uņţā he make." Andlike I am-not. Ме servant-of one chōchas aur ās-gē tambas-tarā barchas. arose andhis father-towards came.

The estimated number of speakers of Kurukh in the Raigarh State is 5,000. At the last Census of 1901, 4,312 speakers were returned, of whom 318 entered Kisān as their native language. The bulk of the Kurukhs of the State belong to the caste of Dhāngars, whose occupation is to dig wells and tanks. Their dialect is, therefore, also known as Dhāngarī or Dhanvārī.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the district, and the beginning of the former will be reproduced below.

The so-called Dhāngarī of Raigarh in most respects agrees with the so-called Kisān of Sarangarh.

H is, however, only occasionally substituted for Standard \underline{kh} ; thus, $hakhr\bar{a}$, it was received; but $\underline{kh}addar$, sons.

In the word husan, Standard gusan, near, the initial g has been replaced by h.

The suffixes of the genitive are i, corresponding to hi in the so-called Dhāngarī of Sambalpur, and $k\bar{e}$, corresponding to $g\bar{e}$ in Sarangarh. Thus, $Dharm\bar{e}s$ -i $erp\bar{a}$ - $n\tilde{o}$, in God's house; nimbas- $k\bar{e}$ $erp\bar{a}$ - $n\tilde{o}$, in thy father's house. The suffix $k\bar{e}$ may be due to Aryan influence. Compare, however, Malto $k\bar{i}$, and the Kurukh dative suffix $g\bar{e}$.

The accusative sometimes ends in $n\bar{a}$ instead of n; thus, $tambasin\bar{a}$, to his father. This form is also used as a dative. On the other hand, we also find the dative used instead of the accusative; thus, $eng\bar{a}g\bar{e}$ $ui\bar{a}$, keep me.

The locative ends in $n\tilde{o}$ instead of $n\tilde{u}$; thus, $erp\tilde{a}-n\tilde{o}$, in the house.

The ablative is regularly formed; thus, tambas-tī, from his father. In ormartis, all-from, an s has been added.

'Two' is $\bar{e}nutan$, corresponding to Standard $endot\bar{a}$. The numerals for 'three' and following are Aryan.

The short forms of the possessive pronouns are confounded as in Sarangarh. Thus, embas, his father; engdas, thy son.

The conjugation of verbs is regular. The various persons are, however, occasionally confounded. Thus we find *menjkan* instead of *menjas*, he heard. Such stray forms are probably simply mistakes.

The suffix t of the third person neuter seems to occur in lauatke, having struck.

Note finally forms such as kālakdan, I am going; urāvachas-ichchas, he spent-gave, he squandered, and so forth.

In other respects the dialect is regular.

[No. 32.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(RAIGARH STATE.)

ēnutan <u>kh</u>addar rahchas. Ormartis Ortos-gē sannis tambasinā One-to twosons were. All-from the-younger his-father-to ٠ē bā, ra'i bata-bhag jaun engagē chiā.' ānias, Tambas said, 0 father, whatisme-to share-portion give.' His-father khatias-chichchas. Thore ullā-nõ batā-bhāg sannis khonr-lihichas divided-gave. Few days-in the-younger share-portion together-took Ā gechchham rājī kēras. rājī-nỗ rannum-rannum chhōt buddhi-nö That far went. country-in country staying-staying bad sense-in tanhā urāvachas-ichchas. Tanhā dhan urāvachas-ichchas dhanholeā spent-away. Hisproperty hisproperty spent-away then thatrājī-nõ mahā-bhārat kīrā mañjā kērā. Ā rājī-nõ ortos kisānfamine very-heavy became Thatwent. country-in farmercountry-in one Tang-urbas taias, kissī khāpā rahchas. kēras. Kissī husan kund His-master sent. swine to-feed he-went. swine husks near stayed. bachchhrā mökhā-liā, kērā, tān mökhālias. Ās-gē endrā mhal remaining he eating-were, went, eating-was. Him-to anything notakhrā. Akkū ās-gē sūrtā varchā, akkū ās anias. 'em-bassī jatěk was-got. And him-to sense came, andhesaid, 'my-father so-many chiā-lakdas mandi onā-gē. Akkū paddā-nõ kamiar-gē kul-tī āgar food giving-he-is to-eat. And this village-in belly-from servants-to morekā'lakdan tambasinā(sic.) ān'un, Ēn em-bas husan sār'aldan. kīrā my-father will-go the-father-to will-say, I-feel. I near hunger erpā-nö ninghāi erpā-nõ nathā-vāchas-ichchas "ē bā, dharmēsi akkū thyhouse-in house-in andsin-committed-have "O father, God's laīki mhalikan, hōē. hā. Engage ortos kamiāninghāi endas akkū Meworthy not-am, father 0. oneservantand thyson·niā." bichār najas, embas husan kēras. Esānum bisē thought made, father Thus went. like keep."

One thousand and five hundred speakers of Kurukh have been returned from the State of Sakti. One thousand of them are stated to speak Dhāngarī. No specimens have been available. It is, however, probable that the dialect is the same as in the neighbouring Raigarh.

According to Mr. Gait's Report of the last Census of Bengal, the Kurukhs of Gangpur, who have long been separated from the main body of the tribe, have a special dialect which is locally known as Berga Orão.

Kurukh has not been returned from Gangpur for the purposes of this Survey, and no materials are available. We cannot, therefore, form any opinion about the Kurukh dialect of the district. It is, however, probable that it is of the same kind as the various forms of the language described in the preceding pages. Strictly speaking, none of them are real dialects, but simply corrupt forms of the language which have come under the influence of the surrounding forms of speech.

The remaining forms of Kurukh are the so-called Khariā of Bonai and Pal Lahera, and the so-called Kisān of Bamra and Rairakhol. The principal Aryan language of all those districts is Oriyā, and it is therefore only what we should expect when the short a is often marked as long. Compare above, p. 411.

From Bonai 180 individuals have been returned as speaking Kurukh. Their dialect is probably the same as the so-called Khariā of the State.

The Khariās of Bonai and Pal Lahera now speak a form of Kurukh. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

Bonai .												320
Pal Lahera	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•			2 95
								0.2		To	TAL	615

Specimens have only been received from Pal Lahera, and the remarks which follow are based on them.

Pronunciation.—A long \bar{a} is often written when Standard Kurukh has a; thus, engan for engan, me; $m\bar{a}l\bar{a}d$ for $mal^{2}\bar{\imath}$, it is not. The long \bar{a} is, however, probably written instead of the short a in order to show that a is not pronounced o as in the surrounding Oriya.

Short vowels are, as in neighbouring dialects of Kurukh, very often inserted between consonants; thus, *chichikāi*, Standard *chichkai*, thou gavest; *kiritāchkān*, Standard *kirtāchkan*, I caused to return, I restored.

 \underline{Kh} becomes h as in the so-called Kisān of Sarangarh, Bamra, and Rairakhol, and the so-called Khariā of Sambalpur; thus, $h\bar{a}du$, Standard $\underline{kh}add$, a son; $hekh\bar{a}$, Standard $\underline{kh}ekkh\bar{a}$, a hand. In other respects the pronunciation only differs in unimportant details. Thus, we find $y\bar{o}$ instead of $\bar{e}\bar{o}$, how much? $r\bar{o}s$, instead of $ra'\bar{o}s$, he will be, etc.

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns is regular. In the genitive, however, $g\bar{e}$ is substituted for gahi. Thus, $\bar{a}las-g\bar{e}$, to a man; $Bh\bar{a}turi-gust\bar{\imath}$, from $Bh\bar{a}turi$; $eng-b\bar{a}ngs-g\bar{e}$, my father's; $bh\bar{a}g-nu$, in the share.

The pronouns are regular. Instead of *ninhai*, thy, we, however, find *ninghē*. Similarly also *tāṅghē*, his, and *eṅghē* or *eṅghāi* (also written *āṅghāi*), my.

Verbs.—The inflexion of verbs is regular with a few exceptions.

In the third person neuter a suffix d is usually added. Thus, $\bar{a}tl\bar{\iota}$, it is; but $hakr\bar{a}d$, it was got; $m\bar{a}l\bar{a}d$, they were not; $m\hat{a}h\bar{a}-lagi\bar{a}d$, (the swine) were eating.

The past verbal participle is often used to form compound verbs. Thus, hendekā-rāchkāi, thou boughtest. Compare forms such as urābāchā-chichas, he wasted-gave, he wasted away. Forms such as nañjkādān, I have done, are also derived from the past participle. Compare Standard nañjkā, done; nañjkan, I did.

The particle $k\bar{\imath}$ which is used in Standard in order to form a kind of conjunctive participle is replaced by \bar{a} ; thus, $\bar{e}n$ $me\bar{n}jk\bar{a}n$ - \bar{a} $man\bar{e}$ $na\bar{n}jk\bar{a}n$, I having-heard thought made; $y\bar{o}$ $rupi\bar{a}$ $chichik\bar{a}y$ - \bar{a} $hendek\bar{a}i$, how-many rupees having-given didst-thou-buy? chichas- \bar{a} $ni\bar{a}li\bar{a}s$, having-given he-asked.

Note finally the interrogative particle $k\bar{a}$ and the indefinite particle $n\bar{e}$. Thus, $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}s\ had\bar{a}s$ - $\bar{a}\ andk\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{o}s$ - $k\bar{a}$, $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}\ having$ -stolen bringing-will-be? $\bar{a}rh\bar{a}i\ rupi\bar{a}$ $man\bar{o}d$ - $n\bar{e}$, two and-a-half rupees will-be-probably.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows.

[No. 33.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(PAL LAHERA STATE.)

Ninsunā phulin Phāudā Bhāturi-gustī hendekā-rāchkāi? Thou this goldnose-drop $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}$ Bhāturi-from boughtest? Hã. Ēn ī phulin hendekā-rāchkān. Yes. Ithis nose-drop bought. Nin ikulā hendekāi? Υõ rupiā chichikāy-ā hendekāi? Thou what-day boughtest? How-many rupees gavest-and boughtest? Hēm mukān piţkā pāńch chha din. kēr-kāthũ Phāudās sunā-phulin Hemwoman killedfive sixdays gone-after $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}$ gold-nose-drop chīchas-ā rupiā niāliās. engan jōrē En tengkan jē, 'enghāi-gusan gave-and me rupees asking-was. I saidthat, 'my-near rupiā mālād.' Ās tengiās, 'rupiā tõ mālād, hēsu khāṇdiō rupees are-not. Hesaid, 'rupees thenare-not, paddya-khāndi phulin chichikā-rā. Sunā uikā-rā. Pachhēlā āur tin khāndi Gold give. nose-drop keep. Afterwards . further threekhāndi chioi.' hēsu tengkan jē, 'āur hēsu palon chiā.' paddy wilt-give.' I saidthat, shall-not-be-able 'more paddyto-give. Ī tingkāthũ kathā ēn khāndiō hēsu chichikān-ā sunā phulin Thiswordsaying-after Ι one-khāndi paddy gave-and goldnose-drop uikān. kept.

Nīn Phāudā-ganē ikulā bikā-kiņā nañjkar-rachkar-kā? Thou Phāudā-with ever buying-selling doing-were-what?

phuli rūpā-chaũrmundi Sunā iukā-āglā āth dinu ontā silver-head-ornament Goldnose-drop keeping-before eight daysone uikān-ā Phaudas-ge chichika-rachkan. dui āņā-gē hēr ontā kept-and annas-for cockPhāudā-to twoone giving-was.

Ā rūpā-chaữrmuṇḍi bājār-nū yỗ dām mañj-kirōd-nē?

That silver-chaữrmuṇḍi bazar-in which price having-been-would-return?

Jōṛē rupiā mańj-kirōd-nē.

Two rupees having-been-would-return.

Sunā phuli-gē mulī yo manod-nē?

Gold nose-drop-to price what may-be?

Sunā phuli-gē dām āṛhāi rupiā manōd-nē.

Gold nose-drop-to price two-and-a-half rupees may-be.

Hēsu khāṇḍiō-gē dām yỗ?

Paddy a-khāndi-to price what?

Ē-bālkē Phāudās engā sunā phuli chichikā-rāchas ãgē rupiā-gē When $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}$ to-me goldnose-drop giving-was thena-rupee-to ārhāi khāndi hēsu lakichād. Ā hisāb-nū hēsu khāndiō-gē two-and-a-half khāndi paddy was-fixed. That rate-at paddya-khāndi-to chha chār pāhulā āņā mañjād. sixannafour pice became.

E-balke chha ānā chār pāhulā-gē hēsu chichikāy-ā ārhāi When sixannas four pice-of paddygavest-and two-and-a-half rupiā-gē sunā phuli uikāi, ninghē man-nū elchkāyi-kā mālā, rupee-of goldnose-drop receivedest, thymind-in fearedest-what not, 'Phāudās $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ sunā phulin hadās-ā andkā-rōs-kā,' idin māl 'Phāudā that goldnose-drop stole-and bringing-may-be, thisnotbāchkāi-kā? saidest-what?

Hendekā tin \dim kēr-kāthũ enghāi man-nū elchkā lagiād, bālkē three daysgoing-after mymind-in fear began, then Phāudās-gē pādā-gē ēn kirkā-rāchkān. Phāudās pādā-nū $m\bar{a}l$ rāchas. $Phar{a}udar{a}$'s village-to Ι going-was. Phāudā village-in notwas. Āstin tang-mukā Mandein Jhariākhaman sangēn dharchas-ā pādā-gē his-wife Then Mandē in-company taking Jhariakhaman village-to barachkān. Āsan harbhū-ūlā Phāudās hasāliās. Ēn dāhi Phāudā-gē I-came. There jungle-in $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}$ was-cutting. $d\bar{a}hi$ I Phāudā-to sunā-phuli kiritāchkān-chichikān. Phāudās sunā-phulin tang-muka-gë gold-nose-drop returned-gave. $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}$ gold-nose-drop his-wife-to uiā-gē sāitā chichas. keeping-for well gave.

Nīn manku sunā-phulin kiritāchkāi kā kirtāchā-gē nēd Thou voluntarily gold-nose-drop returnedest or returning-for anybody ningān tengiās?

Enghāi jiā-nū elchkā lagiād. Is-gē lagān sunā-phuli Myheart-in fear was-fixed. for-the-sake This-of gold-nose-drop kirtāchkān chichikān. 'Hadkā māl · manod,' bāchkān•ā enghāi jiā-nū I-returned gave. 'Stolen propertymay-be, having-said mind-in my dhōk lagiād. fear was-fixed.

Nin hendā-bālkē Phāudās sunā-phulin ēstin andarkā-rāchas, bāchas-ā Thou buying-when $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}$ gold-nose-drop whence bringing-was, saying tengiās? told?

Phāudās tengiās, 'ēn sunā-phulin ī jabar gechhentī andarkādān.' $Ph\bar{a}ud\bar{a}$ said. ٠I this gold-nose-drop great distance-from brought-have.' Ēn menikan-a hadkā māl bāchkān-ā manē nanjkan. Sastā hakān hearing stolen Iproperty saying mind made. Cheap I-got bālkē hendekā-rāchkān. Pachhēlā kiritāchkān chichikān. Enghāi hēsu therefore buying-was. Afterwards. I-returned I-gave. Mypaddyondkādās. khāndiō one-khāndi heate.

Rūpā chaŭrmuṇḍi ākōn nēkhē-gusan ātlī? Silver head-ornament now whom-with is?

Chaurmundi enghai-gusan atli.

The-head-ornament me-with is.

Nīn hadkā māl hendekāi jē dōshī kā mālāi?

Thou stolen property boughtest that guilty or art-not?

Hã. En dōshī ātlān.

Yes. I guilty am.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Did you buy this gold nose-drop from Phāudā Bhāturi? Yes.

When did you buy it, and how much did you pay for it?

Five or six days after the woman Hem had been killed, Phāudā handed the nose-ornament over to me and asked two rupees for it. I said that I had no money. Said he, if you have no money, give me a khāndi of rice, and keep the nose-ornament. You will give me three khāndi more later on.' I said that I should not be able to give more, and so I gave him one khāndi and kept the nose-ornament.

Had you ever any other business with Phāudā?

Eight days before the purchase of the nose-ornament, I bought a silver Chaur-mundi, and gave Phauda a cock worth two annas.

¹ A kind of head-ornament.

How much would the Chaurmundi fetch in the bazar?

Two rupees.

What is the price of the gold nose-drop?

Two rupees and-a-half.

What is the price of a khāndi rice? . .

When Phāudā sold me the nose-drop, there went two *khāndis* and-a-half to the rupee. At that rate, one *khāndi* would cost six annas and four pice.

When you bought a nose-drop worth two rupees and-a-half for six annas fourpice worth of rice, did you not suspect that he might have stolen it?

Three days after the purchase I began to feel uneasy, and I went to Phāudā's village, but he was not in. So I took his wife Mandē with me and went to the village of Jhariākhaman. We found Phāudā in the jungle, cutting wood for the Dāhi cultivation. I returned the nose-drop to Phāudā, and he gave it to his wife to keep.

Did you return the gold ornament voluntarily, or did anybody tell you to do so?

I was uneasy in my mind, and therefore I restored it, thinking that it might be stolen property.

Did Phauda tell you where he had got the nose-drop, when you bought it?

He said that he had brought it from a great distance. When I heard that, I suspected that it might have been stolen. But I bought it because I got it cheap. Afterwards I restored it. He, however, had eaten my rice.

Where is the silver Chaurmundi now?

It is with me.

Do you plead guilty of buying stolen property?

Yes, I do.

Kurukh is also spoken in the Bamra State. The dialect is known as Kisān, i.e. cultivators' language. The estimated number of speakers is 3,750. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 15,704. The old estimates are probably below the mark, and some of the 13,569 individuals who have been returned as speaking Mundārī should be transferred to Kurukh. In 1901, only 6,023 speakers of Mundārī were returned from the district.

With regard to pronunciation, we may note the substitution of an h for Standard \underline{kh} . Thus, $hekh\bar{a}$, Standard $\underline{kh}ekkh\bar{a}$, hand; heddu, Standard $\underline{kh}edd$, foot; $m\bar{o}h\bar{a}-g\bar{e}$, Standard $m\bar{o}\underline{kh}\bar{a}-g\bar{e}$, in order to eat. Compare Kurukh \underline{kh} ond, Mundārī $hund\bar{a}$, gather.

Nouns.—The usual plural particle is a prefixed bagi. Thus, bagi ghoṛī, mares; bagi kokai, daughters. Compare Standard bagge, many. Besides we also find forms such as jāti-mānē, the caste-men. Compare Oṛiyā and Chhattīsgarhī.

The usual case-suffixes are, accusative n, nu; dative $k\bar{\imath}$, $g\bar{e}$; ablative $t\bar{\imath}$; genitive $k\bar{e}$, $g\bar{e}$; locative $n\bar{u}$. Thus, hadusin hadun dhar-ke, having seized the lad and the girl; jāti-mānē hadunnu menjas, the caste-men asked the girl; bangas $k\bar{\imath}$, to the father; $\bar{a}s$ - $g\bar{e}$, to him; $n\bar{e}kh\bar{e}$ -gust $\bar{\imath}$, from whom? bangas- $k\bar{e}$, of a father; $e\bar{n}$ - $k\bar{a}kas$ - $g\bar{e}$ hadu, my uncle's son: $olp\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, in the house.

Forms such as $m\bar{a}l$ - $j\bar{a}l\bar{a}r$, of the property; $\bar{a}laskar$, of a man, are formed with the genitive suffix r of the Oriyā dialect spoken in the State.

Pronouns.—The final ai of the genitive of personal pronouns has been replaced by \bar{e} ; thus, $engh\bar{e}$, my; $ningh\bar{e}$ or $nigh\bar{e}$, thy; $enh\bar{e}$, our; $nimh\bar{e}$, your. 'Thou' is $n\bar{\imath}n$, but also nighe. $\bar{A}las$, a man, is often used instead of $\bar{a}s$, he. 'His' is $\bar{a}sg\bar{e}$ and $\bar{a}sk\bar{e}r$.

Verbs.—The present tense of the verb substantive is atlan, I am; atlai, thou art; atlas, he is; $atl\bar{\imath}$, it is. The masculine form is apparently also used for the feminine. Compare ra'a-chas, she was. The singular forms are often used in the plural. A third person plural is $atl\bar{a}$, they are.

With regard to finite verbs, we may note forms such as kerkechkan, I went; kerkchas, he went; nañjā-ich'as, he did; nañjkā-r'om-nē, that I might have done; mal nannā, I did not.

Further details will be ascertained from the specimens which follow. The first is the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second a popular tale. They are far from being satisfactory, but it is hoped that they are sufficient to show the general character of the dialect.

[No. 34.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(STATE BAMRA.).

Specimen I.

sānis tan-bansin Jōrē haddar-rū haddar atlā. Ortos-ki jōŗē Twothe-younger his-father-tosons-among sons One-to twoare. khātrō bhāg āngās-ki (sic) bhāg māl-jālār jāhā 'ban. tingiyās, will-be-got which share me-to sharefather, property-of said, mal kā'd-am Alas bhāg nañjā-ich'ās. Bagi ūlā engā. adin chiā passed-even daysnotHesharemade-gave. Many to-me. thatgivekērā $d\bar{u}r$ dēs-nū. māl-jāl atlī gechhā uṇḍā-nŭ sāni hadar sabudistantcountry-in. propertyone-in isfar wentson-of young mañjā. balkē angē maharag uriar-kērā. uriar-kērā Sabu Asani hurmi famine became. there Allspent-went thenspent-went. allThereāsrā-āchas. purthi-nū ālas-kar Ālas $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ hakhiyās. Bēsi dukh protection-took. man-of He thatcountry-in Much got. misery mūkhā Ālas kissu hallā-gē kissu hā'pā-gē. tangan Alasin taichas Heswine eaten to-tend. field-to swine Himsent hisunku mall chichas. Tangāhē nēdhi unku mõhā-gē mân atle. husks gave. anybody nothusks to-eat mind Him-to

[No. 35.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(STATE BAMRA.)

SPECIMEN II.

pâdā-nū ontā pachkis ra'achas. Ās-gē kokai ontā ra'achas. One village-in oneold-man Him-to was. daughter onewas. Kokainu dharchas Ā ontā hadus bongas. pachis ā-bâlke jāti-The-daughter caught one boy fled. old-man That that-time castegusan-gē Tengiyas jāti-gusan-nū, tengā kēras. 'enghē kokai ontā near-to to-say went. He-said caste-presence-in, 'my daughter one hadus dharchas bongas.' Jāti-mānē āl taias dâgra-kēra hakhiyas. boy caught fled. Caste-people men sent searching found. Hadusin hadun dhar-kē ândras. Jāti-mānē hadunnu meñjas, 'nighē Boygirlhaving-caught brought. Caste-people girlasked, 'thou hadus sånge \mathbf{ender} kārkai?' Hadun tengiyas, 'hadus sikshyā-nu kēras.' boy with why wentest?' The-girl said. 'the-boy entreaty-in went. Jāti-mānē tengiyas hadusnu, 'nanas-kē hadun dharchkai bongai jē Caste-people said boy-to, 'another-of girlcaughtest fledst thatnighē dush nañjakedas. Nighē dush nañjakedas jē enghe bhuji-nu thou faultmadest. Thou fault madest thatthoufeast-in rupiā chiā. Pachkisnu kaniā-mūl satē rupiā chāri anā chiā chandhe.' money give. Old-man-to bride-price seven rupees four annas givesoon.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In a village there lived an old man who had a daughter. A young lad ran away with her. The father then went and complained to the caste that the lad had run away with his daughter. The caste sent men to search after them, and they were found and brought back. The caste-people asked the girl, 'why did you go with the lad?' The girl said, 'he persuaded me.' They then said to the lad, 'since you have committed the fault of running away with another man's girl, you must stand a feast, and you must give the old man seven rupees and four annas for the girl.'

Five hundred and forty-seven speakers of Kisān have been returned from the Rairakhol State. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were 1,367. The so-called Kisān of Rairakhol is simply a corrupt Kurukh, just as was the case in Bamra.

The dialect of Rairakhol in many respects agrees with that spoken in Bamra. Compare $h\bar{a}p\bar{a}$, Standard $\underline{k}h\bar{a}p\bar{a}$, tend; $dhann\bar{u}$ $mu\bar{n}jy\bar{a}$ -chichchas, he wasted his property; $engh\bar{e}$, my; $nigh\bar{e}$, thy; malla $charhn\bar{a}$, I did not transgress, etc.

The plural is seldom expressed; thus, $j\bar{o}r\bar{e}$ haddus, two sons; $ch\bar{a}kriy\bar{a}s$, the servants. Sometimes also the case suffixes are dispensed with. Thus, alas, of, or to, a man; $b\bar{a}ngs$, to the father. The dative and the accusative are sometimes confounded. Thus, $\bar{a}sin$, to him; $ch\bar{a}kry\bar{a}r$ -ing, to the servants.

With regard to pronouns we may note forms such as $y\bar{a}l\bar{a}s-k\bar{\imath}$, i.e. $\bar{\imath}-\bar{a}las-k\bar{\imath}$, of that man, his; $\bar{a}s-k\bar{e}$, and $\bar{a}s-gh\bar{e}$, his; $\hbar at$, that thing; $endr\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}$, anything, and the use of $\bar{e}k\bar{a}$, which? as a relative pronoun.

Most verbal forms are apparently regular. Compare atlī, it is; atlas, they are (singular instead of plural); hakkhān, I get; hakkhalnār, they are getting; chichkai, thou gavest; tingun, I shall say; nānōt, let us do. Several irregular forms are, however, used as well. Thus, kōt and kēras, he went; kāmchāt, he did; bhāgkāmā, dividing; onṭā jamā-kiri, having collected; kēras, going; ērat, having seen, etc.

For further details the student is referred to the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(STATE RAIRAKHOL.)

alas Ontã jōŗē haddus atlās. Aul-tin sannis haddus man(-of) One twosons Them-of were. the-younger son bangs tingyās, 'hē bān, nighē dhannū ēkā bhāgū ēn hakkhan the-father-to 0 said, father, thy property-in which share gethat chyā.' Anunti ās dhannū bhāg-kāmā ār-gē chichyas. that give.' Thereafter heproperty-in division-making them-to gave. Una ullā kir-kānthū sannis kukkas hurmī-jēkō ontā-jamā-kirī Fewdays going-after the-younger son allone-place-making uchchas, gechchhyā rājī kōt, kharāb kāmchāsya hurmi dhannū took, distant country went. evildeeds-in allproperty munjyā-chichchyas. Hurmi muñjyā-chichchyas ārū $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ dēs-nū nithä wasting-gave. Allwasting-gave and that country-in heavy mahrag khātrā, ās-ghē dukh khatrā. Innunti ās kēras ā famine occurred, hisdistress occurred. This-from he went that dēsantas onțā arpantas āsrā-nu rāchas. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}$ alas āsin kissübhir country-in protection-in onecitizen(-of) remained. Thatman him swine hāpā-gē hallū-gē uchchas. Āsan āsin nēdin endrā-nī onā-gē māl to-feed field-to sent. There him anybodyanything eating-for 200 chichchas. As kissū-gē mõhā-gē kund kulā unnā-gē man kāmchāt. Hegave. swine-to eating-for husksbelly filling-for mind made. Pāsilī ās manē-manē chētā hakhyās singyās, 'hāy, enghē bāngsē-Afterwards hein-mind sense got said. 'Oh, my father'schāhā-nū yēngurē chākriyās adhyanti bāgé onā-gē hakkhalnār. Bākĩ house-in how-many servants enough-from much eating-for get. Butēn kīrā khayāldān. $\bar{\mathbf{E}}\mathbf{n}$ bāngsē-chāhā-nū kērās ārū tingun. "hē \boldsymbol{I} with-hunger am-dying. I father-of-near going andwill-say, " O bāng, ēn mahāpur-ghē ārū nighē chāhā-nū pāp kāmchekān. Nighē father, I heaven-of andthypresence-in sindid. Thyhaddun bānā mallyān. Nighē ontā chākriyās bhuttī enghan uiyā.", son to-say I-am-not. Thyone servant like me keep." Ad-ghē pāsilī ās chōchyas bāngsē-chāhā-gē kēras. Bākĩ tänghē bāngs That-of after he arosefather-of-presence-to But went. his father

tänghe ārū ārū kudiyā-kērās, davā niñjas, gechchhyā āsin ērat, nithā running-went, his and made, andpityseeing, farhim very chunkhyās chichchas. āsin dharchas, ārū hantā kissed gavehim andseized, neck

The table printed on p. 407 shows that Kurukh is spoken in several places outside the territory where it is a vernacular. We cannot, in this place, deal with the various forms the language assumes abroad. It is known under the same names as within its proper territory. Thus we find it returned as Dhāngarī in Shahabad, Champaran, and Bhagalpur. In Bhagalpur the speakers are also known as Kōls, and their language has, therefore, hitherto been considered as a Mundā dialect. The beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the so-called Dhāngarī or Kōl of Bhagalpur will, however, show that it is Kurukh and not a dialect of the Mundā family.

[No. 37.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KURUKH.

(DISTRICT BHAGALPUR.)

tangdas sanī rahcha. Aiantī khaddar ālar-gi duţā Nēkhai sonthe-younger Them-from sons were. man-of twoSome holē raī, dhanan hissā-nō jō 'bābā, enghae tambas-turu bāchas, then is. which property father, my share-in said, his-father-to ūlā hu mālā bitiā, Jokā dhanan khattias. $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ Aur chyā. passed, notFewdayseven he-divided. property that give. And bongas, dēs jamā dūsrā nanjas, hūrmi dhanan tangdas sani went, made, anothercountry togetherall property son the-younger mujias jab sagrō nañjas. Aur indar-indar dhanan tanghai asan aur allspent when Andmade. property what-what histhere and antilkē kīŗā mañjā, aur ā kīŗā antilkē rājin-āggar chichas thenfamine andcountry-in-big famine became, thatthen gave antilkē rāyā-helras, aur rāji-nū ontā ālas-gusan $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ Aur mañjas. to-live-began, andthen man-near country-in on thathe-became. Then mökhdas. khusī ghasi antilkē taias. Aur mentā khal-nū kis āsin ate. gladlygrassAndthen he-sent. swineto-tend field-in him chainar. mal Nēhu Anybody not gave.

MALTO.

Malto is almost exclusively spoken in the Rajmahal Hills in the north-east of the Sonthal Parganas. The number of speakers has been estimated at about 12,000.

Malto is the name used by the people themselves in order to denote their language.

Name of the language.

The word simply means 'the language of the Maler,' and maler in Malto means 'men' and is the name the people apply to themselves. The Rev. E. Droese, whose Malto Grammar is the principal source of our information about the language, writes maler, and I have adopted this form, though most authorities write maler with a long a.

We do not know the original meaning of the word maler. The Rev. F. Hahn, in the introduction to his Kurukh Grammar, draws attention to the fact that māl in Kurukh means 'giant,' 'hero.' It is, however, more probable that Malto like Malayālam is derived from the common Dravidian mala, mountain, so that the original meaning of maler would be 'hillmen'; compare Tamil tamirar, Tamilians, from Tamir, Tamil.

Malto is sometimes also used to denote other forms of speech, more especially a form of Bengali spoken by the Māl-Pahāriās. See Vol. V, Part I, pp. 99 and ff.

The Maler sometimes also call themselves Sauriā, and their language is also known under the name of Rājmahālī, i.e., the language of the Rajmahal Hills.

Malto is almost entirely confined to the Rajmahal Hills in the Sonthal Parganas.

Area within which spoken.

At the last Census of 1901, about 1,000 speakers were returned from other districts of the Bengal Presidency. Compare the remarks under the head of number of speakers below.

The Malto area forms a linguistic island in territory occupied by Bengali, Bīhārī, and Santālī. It has already been remarked in connexion with Kurukh that the traditions of that latter tribe are to the effect that the Kurukhs and the Maler are one and the same tribe, and that they formerly lived together on the banks of the Sone, whence the Maler followed the course of the Ganges and finally settled in the Rajmahal Hills. This tradition is strongly borne out by the close resemblance between the languages of the two tribes.

The skirts of the Rajmahal Hills and the low lands and valleys intersecting them are now occupied by the Sonthals. In former days the Maler made frequent raids on the plains. Towards the end of the 18th century they were brought to terms by Augustus Cleveland, Collector and Magistrate of Bhagalpur, who left them in free possession of their territory on condition that they should give up their predatory habits. He did not, however, succeed in inducing them to turn to regular cultivation. They preferred to call in the Sonthals from Hazaribagh as cultivators, and the result has been that the Sonthals have now taken possession of the low lands and the valleys, and the Maler have only retained the hills.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey, Malto was spoken

Number of speakers.

by 12,801 individuals in the Rajmahal Hills. At the Census

of 1891 no separate figures were given. The language
was probably included in the figures for Māl-Pahāriā, which was treated as a Dravidian
form of speech, but has now turned out to be a corrupt Bengali.

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A much larger number of speakers has been returned at the last Census of 1901. The details are as follows:—

Hoogly										37
Dinajpur										140
Darjeeling		:	i							243
Bhagalpur	:									338
Malda .								•		543
Sonthal Par						•.				59,476
									-	
							To	TAL		60,777

The corresponding figure for the Maler tribe was 48,281. The language total is, therefore, certainly above the mark. We are not, however, able to check it, the estimates made for the purposes of this Survey probably being too low. Mr. Gait, in the report of the last Census of Bengal, explains the discrepancy between the language and caste returns as follows:—

'The true explanation seems to be that Rājmahāli which, following the Linguistic Survey, I classed as Malto, should in many cases have been treated as Bengali, and that the word Malto itself was sometimes misused in the same sense. Except in the case of Rajshahi, the ambiguity attaching to these terms did not attract my attention in time to enable me to remove it by classifying the language of the persons so returned according to their caste and tribe.'

Malto has not been mentioned by any old authority. A short vocabulary was printed in the fifth volume of the Asiatic Researches. The following are the works dealing with the language which I have come

across :-

ROBERTS, Major, R.E.,—Specimen of the Language of the People inhabiting the Hills in the vicinity of Bhagulpoor. Communicated in a Letter to the Secretary. Asiatick Researches. Vol. v, 1799, pp. 127 and ff.

Hodgson, B. H.,—The Aborigines of Central India. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Vol. xvii, 1848, pp. 553 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. II. London, 1880, pp. 99 and ff. Contains vocabularies of Malto, etc.

Mason, F.,—The Talaing Language. Journal of the American Oriental Society, Vol. iv, pp. 277 and ff. Contains a list of words in Rajmahali, etc., reprinted in the British Burma Gazetteer, and in the Revue de Linguistique, Vol. xvii, pp. 167 and ff.

Dalton, E. T.,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Rajmahali vocabulary. Campbell, Sir George,—Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874, pp. 94 and ff.

Cole, Rev. F. T.,—The Rajmahal Hillmen's Songs. Indian Antiquary, Vol. v, 1876, pp. 221 and f.

Aufrecht, Theodor,—Eine Liste von Rajmahali-Wörtern. Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. xxxi, 1877, pp. 742 and ff. Contains a Rajmahali vocabulary, found among the papers of the late John Beutley in the Trinity College, Cambridge.

SWINTON, R., -Rajmahâli Words. Indian Antiquary, Vol. vii, 1878, pp. 130 and ff.

RAJMAHALLI PRIMER,—Paryen Sikatra Maltono, i Kochi. Agra, 1879.

DROESE, REV. ERNEST,-Introduction to the Malto Language, Agra, 1884.

Malto does not possess a literature of its own. The Psalms, the four Gospels, and the

Acts of the Apostles have been translated into it. The Roman
alphabet has been made use of for the purpose.

The Malto language very closely agrees with Kurukh. It has, however, been strongly influenced by Aryan tongues, especially in vocabulary, and there are also some traces of the influence of the neighbouring Santālī.

Pronunciation.—The system of denoting the sounds of the language has been introduced by the Rev. E. Droese, and it is based on the common system used

in transliterating Hindostānī. It is therefore sufficient to draw attention to some few points.

B is described as fluctuating between the English b and v; and w is said to be something between English v and w.

The Rev. E. Droese describes the pronunciation of q as follows:—

'q, as k uttered with the root of the tongue pressed back on the throat, so as to check the voice gently and to occasion a clinking (? clicking) sound.'

There is also a deep g, which is said to be like the Northumbrian r. It does not, however, occur in the specimens. Mr. Droese writes it g. Compare the Arabic ghain.

 \underline{Th} is said to be a lightly sounded sharp English th.

Nouns.—Men and gods are masculine, women and goddesses are feminine. All other nouns are neuter. The feminine agrees with the neuter in the singular, and with the masculine in the plural. Neuter nouns have no plural. The termination of the nominative singular feminine and neuter is <u>th</u>, and this suffix is also added to words such as <u>abba</u>, my father; <u>prabhu</u>, the Lord; <u>Gosanyi</u>, God. Thus <u>eng abbath</u> got <u>āken enge sopchāth</u>, my father has given all things to me; <u>Gosanyith</u> <u>īw-īw chāchet Ibrahimek maqerin kundtroti pāryīth</u>, God is able of these stones to raise up children unto Abraham.

Feminine nouns are sometimes formed from masculine by adding *ni*, thus, *mal-ni*, a hill woman; *mālik-ni*, a mistress, etc. The suffix *ni* is, of course, borrowed from an Aryan source.

The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way by prefixing words such as bokṛa, male; dadi, female, in the case of four-footed animals, etc.

The plural of rational nouns is formed by adding r; thus, maler, men; maln $\bar{i}r$, women. Peli, a woman, and maqi, a girl, form their plurals peler, mager, respectively. Bager or bagter, many, is often used as a plural suffix. Thus, tangad bagter, son many, sons. A kind of plural is in a similar way formed from neuter nouns by adding gahndi, a flock, a multitude; thus, $b\bar{e}di$ gahndith, sheep.

The case suffixes are added immediately to the base, just as is the case in Kurukh. The suffixes are also mainly the same as in that form of speech. Compare the skeleton grammar on pp. 452 and ff. below. It should, however, be noted that Malto always uses the definite nominative, not only of masculine nouns, but also of feminine and neuter bases. Thus, maleh, a man; malnith, a woman; manth, a tree. The terminations of the nominative are those belonging to the demonstrative pronouns.

The dative suffix k sometimes takes the form ko; thus, mal-ko, to a man. This suffix is said to add a collective signification so that the proper translation of mal-ko would be 'to mankind.' From ko is formed an emphatic kihi, and in a similar way an emphatic nihi is found in addition to the locative suffix no; thus, mal-kihi, even to man; ada-nihi, even in the house. The final ihi in these suffixes probably represents an attempt at marking an i with a following semi-consonant.

Adjectives.—Nouns are freely used as adjectives. A final e is dropped, and so also the final i of peli, woman. Thus, male, man; mal tetuth, a human hand: peli, woman; pel $s\bar{a}jeth$, female attire. In other respects the Malto adjective is of the same kind as that of Kurukh.

Numerals.—Malto has borrowed Aryan forms for the numerals 'three' and following. Aryan forms are also commonly used for the two first numerals.

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When the Dravidian forms are used to qualify neuter nouns, generic particles are prefixed to them in order to denote the kind of noun qualified. Such particles are maq, referring to animals; pat, denoting things with a flat surface; kad, denoting objects of the appearance of tendrils; $d\tilde{a}r$, long things; $p\tilde{a}r$, round things, etc. Thus, maq-ond $\bar{e}re$, one goat; pat-ond $k\bar{a}t^i$, one bedstead; $p\tilde{a}r$ -ond $p\bar{a}nu$, one egg.

The qualified noun is sometimes used as a generic prefix. Thus, man-ond manu, atree; sab-ond sabā, a word.

It will be seen that Malto in this respect agrees with some Tibeto-Burman languages. The two first numerals are, if we leave out the generic prefixes, ort, neuter ond, one; ivor, neuter is, two. Thus, ort maqi, one girl; ivor maqer, two sons.

Ort can also be used as a noun. It then takes the forms orteh in the masculine and ortith in the feminine. In the same way we find a noun inver, they two. Instead of inverse also find inverse or invise used as an adjective. The meaning is the same as that of inverse or invise used as an adjective.

Pronouns.—The Malto pronouns are the same as those used in Kurukh. Forms such as *abba*, my father, but *abbo*, thy father, are peculiar, and they seem to be formed by adding a personal suffix as is the case in Santālī.

There are no neuter plurals of the demonstrative pronouns, the singular being used instead. A w is often added to the demonstrative bases when they point back to objects already mentioned. Thus, $\bar{\imath}w-\bar{\imath}weth$ $\bar{e}ro-malath$, these things are bad; $\bar{a}h$ bikyah $\bar{a}w-\bar{a}wer$ barchar, he called those came, those whom he called came. This w is perhaps the old suffix of the neuter plural.

Verbs.—The conjugational system closely agrees with Kurukh. It is, however, richer in forms than is the case in that latter language. Thus it not only possesses a present, a past, and a future, but also a conjunctive and an optative, and there is a corresponding series of negative forms. This richness of various forms is probably due to the influence of Santāli.

The various participles which are used in the formation of compound tenses are very commonly conjugated in person and number, just as is the case in Kurukh. In a similar way ordinary adverbs are often replaced by inflected forms agreeing in person and number with the subject. Thus, en duren ano dokin, I alone dwell there. Here the adverb dure, alone, only, agrees with the pronoun en, I, in person and number. Forms such as Kurukh en eskan ra'chkan, I had broken, are exactly analogous. In Malto two participles are inflected in this way, one with the meaning of a present participle while the other must usually be translated as a conjunctive participle. The former takes the suffix ne, and the latter the suffix ke corresponding to Kurukh kā. Thus, bandne, drawing; bandeke, having drawn.

These participles are conjugated as follows:—Singular,—

- 1. bandnen; bandeken.
- 2. bandne, f.-ni; bandeke, f.-ki.
- 3. bandneh, f. & n. -nith; bandekeh, f. & n. -kith.

Plural,-

- . 1. bandnem, bandnet; bandekem, bandeket.
 - 2. bandner; bandeker.
 - 3. bandner, n. -nith; bandeker, n. -kith.

Examples of the use of such participles are en tude pitnen urarken, I tiger killing was wounded; ah takan qendkeh eng bahak barchah, he the-money having-brought me near came.

As in other connected languages, nouns of agency are formed from the relative participles by adding the terminations of the demonstrative pronouns. Thus from baje, to strike, the relative participles baju, who strikes, and bajpe, who struck, are formed. By adding pronominal suffixes we may form nouns of agency such as bajuh, a striker; bajpeth, a woman who has struck. Such nouns of agency can, of course, also be conjugated. Thus, ēn bajun, I am a striker; nīm bajper, you are people who have struck, etc.

There are, further, many various verbal nouns and participles.

The simplest form of the verbal noun is the base ending in e; thus, bande, to draw. This form is the base of several adverbial and conjunctive participles. Thus, band-no, or emphatic band-nihi, in the act of drawing; bandako, after the drawing; bandati, by means of the drawing, on account of the drawing, etc.

E is also added to the base of the past tense in order to form an adverbial participle; thus, Mēsah ahin baje ṭiḍah, Mesa him beating (by beating) overcame. There is a form ending in i which is used in a similar way, especially with verbs denoting motion; thus, maler ame tundi ochar, the-men the-water spilling brought.

The present definite and similar compound tenses are formed from this participle or verbal noun. Thus, $n\bar{\imath}n$ indre kude $d\bar{o}kne$, what are you doing? Often, however, the final vowel is dropped; thus, $\bar{a}h$ ine gumon asch $d\bar{o}kih$, he is to-day chiselling the post.

A past verbal noun, which has the additional meaning of necessity, is formed by adding the suffix po; thus, eige keypoth, me-to dying-is; death is my lot.

A third verbal noun is formed by adding oti, thus, bandoti, to draw. It is commonly used as an infinitive of purpose.

An adverbial participle is formed by adding le to the base of the past tense; thus, darch-le, catching. It usually denotes customary or habitual action; thus, ēn ame chānch-le ōnin, I water filtering drink.

Negative forms correspond to most of the participles and verbal nouns mentioned in the preceding remarks, and it will thus be seen that this part of Malto conjugation is very complex.

The suffix of the present tense is *i*, and in the 2nd person singular and the 2nd and 3rd persons plural an *n*-suffix is added. Compare the forms of the inflected participle in *ne*. The past tense is formed as in Kurukh, and the characteristic of the future seems to be *e*.

The conjunctive and optative seem to be innovations of the dialect, probably under the influence of the rich variety of the conjugational system in Santālī.

An inspection of the tables in the grammatical sketch on pp. 452 and f. will show that the personal terminations are essentially the same as in Kurukh.

The passive voice is formed by adding *uwr* or *ur*, probably a form of the verb substantive, to the base. Thus, *baj-uwre*, to be struck. This form is very commonly used reflexively. Compare the passive in Santālī.

Causatives are formed by adding the suffix tr; thus, $m\tilde{e}\tilde{n}jtre$, to cause to make. From such verbs we may form double causatives by adding tit; thus, baj-tr-tite, to cause someone to have someone struck. Other causatives are formed by adding d; thus, $\tilde{o}ne$, to drink, caus. onde; $p\tilde{u}ne$, to put, caus. punde, etc.

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Compound verbs are very extensively formed. Thus, $\bar{a}ne$, to say; $\bar{a}n$ -naqe, to speak to one another; barch-sege, to come again and again, etc. We shall here only note the frequent use of the verb mene, to be, as the second part of transitive compounds. Thus, saba-kata, word, tale; $\bar{e}m$ $\bar{a}rin$ sabakata $me\bar{n}jekem$, we spoke with them; $n\bar{\imath}n$ ning $k\bar{a}jen$ $b\bar{\imath}r$ -menku, thou shalt attend thy work; mare, to will, to wish; mar-mene, to be pleased with, to love, etc. Mene is itself perhaps a Santālī loan-word.

The negative verb is inflected throughout. An examination of the conjugational tables on p. 453 will, however, show that this conjugation is effected by inserting the negative particle l (compare illa in Kanarese, etc.), and then conjugating. Instead of l we may also add the verb maleken, I am not, to a participle ending in o; thus, bando-maleken, I don't draw. This participle ending in o is used in combination with various forms of maleken in order to form several negative nouns and participles. Thus, bando-male, not to draw; bando-malpo, not to have drawn; bando-malu, not drawing (relative participle), and so forth.

There is also a negative verb pole, corresponding to Kurukh polnā, not to be able.

It is hoped that when the preceding remarks are borne in mind the short grammatical sketch which follows will enable the student to understand the forms occurring in the two specimens which follow. They have both been received from the Sonthal Parganas. The first is, however, simply the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son published by the Calcutta Bible Society, Agra, 1881. The second is a popular tale taken down in the district. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found below on pp. 648 and ff. For further details Mr. Droese's grammar mentioned under authorities above should be consulted.

MALTO SKELETON GRAMMAR.

I .- NOUNS .- Male, man ; malni, woman ; manu, tree ; bendu, coil.

	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.		
Nom.	maleh.	maler.	malni <u>th</u> .	malnīr.	manth.	beņļu <u>th</u> .
Acc.	malen.	malerin.	malnin.	malnirin.	mane.	beņdun.
Inst.	malet.	malerit.	malnit.	malnirit.	manet.	bendut.
Dat.	malek.	malerik.	malnik.	malnirik.	manik.	beņduk.
ΑЫ.	malente.	malerinte.	malninte.	malnirinte.	mannte.	bendunte.
Gen.	maleki.	malerki.	malniki.	malnirki.	manki.	beņģuki.
Loc.	maleno.	malerino.	malnino.	malnirino.	manno.	benduno.
Voc.	o male.	o maler.	o malni.	o malnīr.	o manu.	o bendu.

II.-PRONOUNS-

	I.	We (exclus.).	We (inclu	s.). Thou.	You.	Self.	Selves.
Nom.	ēn.	ēm.	nām.	nīn.	nīm.	tāni.	$t\bar{a}mi.$
Acc.	engen.	emen.	namen.	ningen.	nimen.	tangen.	tamen.
Dat.	enge.	eme.	name.	ninge.	nime.	tange.	tame.
Gen.	eng (-ki).	em(-ki).	nam(-ki).	ning(-ki).	nim(-ki).	tang(-ki).	tam(-ki).
Loc.	engeno.	emeno.	nameno.	ningeno.	nimeno.	tangeno.	tameno.
	He.	She, it.		They (m. and f.).	7	Vho P	What
Nom.	āh.	ā <u>th</u> .	à	īr, ā-saber.	nēreh, f. ne	(ri) <u>th</u> .	indrth.
Acc.	ahin.	a <u>th</u> in, n. a <u>th</u> e.	1	īrin.	nēken.		indre.
Dat.	ahik.	athik.	à	īrik.	nēke.		indrik.
Gen.	ahi(-ki).	a <u>th</u> i(-ki).	à	īri(-ki).	nēk(-ki).		indrki.
Loc.	ahino.	a <u>th</u> ino, n. a <u>th</u> en	10.	īrino.	nēkeno.		indrno.

Ih, f. and n. $\bar{\imath}_{\ell h}$, this, is inflected as $\bar{\alpha}h$, that. So also $n\bar{\alpha}h$, that one. Aw, that; $\bar{\imath}_{w}$, this, plur. $\bar{\alpha}w$ - $\bar{\alpha}w$, $\bar{\imath}_{w}$ - $\bar{\imath}_{w}$, respectively, refer to something which has previously been mentioned. $N\bar{e}reh$, who? has a nom. plur. $n\bar{e}rer$. Ikeh, which? is inflected as maleh, man, but inserts hi before the suffixes of the instrumental, ablative, and locative. Thus, ikehit, by which? The feminine $ik\bar{\imath}_{t}h$ is inflected like malnith, and the neuter ikuth like manth.

 $[\]bar{A}$ ($\bar{a}w$), that; \bar{i} ($\bar{i}w$), this; ik, which? are adjectives.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding gote or bedi to the interrogative pronouns. Thus, ikeh-gote, anyone; indrth-bedi, something.

III .- VERBS .- Bande, to draw ; darye, to catch.

Verbal nouns—bande, bandpo; darye, darypo. Negative, bando-male, bando-malpo; daryo-male, daryo-malpo. Infinitive of purpose—bandoti; daryoti.

Relative participles - Present, bandu; daryu. Negative, bando-malu; daryo-malu. Past, bandpe; darype. Negative, bando-malpe; daryo-malpe.

Inflected adverbial participles—bandne; daryne. Negative, bando-malne; daryo-malne. Past, bande-ke; darchke. Negative, bandleke, daryleke.

Adverbial participles—band(e), bandi, bandle; darch, darchi, darchle. Negative, band-balo, bando-malle; dary-balo, daryo-malle.

Conjunctive participles -bandako; darchko. Negative, bandlako; darylako.

Case forms of verbal noun used as participles—bandno; daryno. Negative, bando-malno; daryo-matno: bandati, darchati. Negative, bandlati; darylati, etc.

	Present.	Past.	Future.	Conjunctive.	Optative.	Imperative.
Sing.						
1.	bandin.	bandeken.	banden.	bandlen.	bandon.	
2. m.	bandne.	bandeke.	bandene.	bandle.	bando.	banda, bundku
2. f.	bandni.	bandeki.	bandeni.	bandli.	bando.	
3. m.	bandik.	bandah.	bandeh.	bandleh.	bandoh, bandandeh.	
3 f. & n.	bandith.	bandath.	bandenith.	bandlith.	bando <u>th</u> , bandānde <u>th</u> .	
Plur.						
1. excl.	bandim.	bandekem.	bandem.	bandlem.	bandom.	
1. incl.	bandit.	bandeket.	bandet.	bandiet.	bandot.	
2.	bandner.	bandeker.	bander.	bandler.	bandor.	
3.	bandner.	bandar.	bander.	bandler.	bandor, bandander.	

The neuter singular is also used when the subject is a plural neuter noun. Banda is the present, and bandku the future imperative.

The tenses of darye, to catch, are formed in the same way. Thus, daryin, I catch; darchken, I caught; darchah, he caught.

Present definite—band(e) dökin; darch dökin.

Pluperfect -bandeken bechken; darchken bechken; 3rd pers. bandekeh bechchah, etc.

NEGATIVE TENSES .-

Present-bando-maleken or bandolken, etc., as bandeken.

Past -bandleken, etc., as bandeken.

Future -banden mala, etc.; 2nd pers. sing. bandene(-ni) mala and bandlene(-ni); 3rd pers. fem. and n. bandenith -mala and bandlenith.

Conjunctive-bandlon, as bandon.

Optative-bando-mandon, etc.

IRREGULAR	VERBS	The p	past tense i	s often	apparently	irregular.	Thus -
						-	

		Past.	Base.	Past.			
Base.	1st pers.	3rd pers.	Base.	1st pers.	3rd pers.		
eye, bind.	ēcheken.	ēchah.	behe, exist, be.	bechken.	bechchah.		
goye, reap.	qoseken.	qosah.	pāke, take up.	menjeken.	pakyah. meñjah.		
bare, come.	barchken.	bzrchah.	choge, set loose.	choqqen.	choques.		
ate, beat the drum.	ateken.	atah.	one, drink.	ondeken.	ondah.		

Mene, to be, has a corresponding negative maleken, I am not; malleken, I was not. Both are conjugated like bandeken. Mene is regularly inflected when it is not the copula. Thus, āh meno-malah, or, menolah, he is not.

Passive voice—Formed by adding uwr or ur to the base and conjugating throughout. Thus, baj-uwr-in, I am struck;
-āh baj-uwr-eh, he will be struck.

Causatives - Formed by adding tr to the base and conjugating throughout. Thus, bai-tr-in, I cause to strike.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

MALTO.

SPECIMEN I.

(SONTHAL PARGANAS.)

Chudeh Ort malek mager bechchar. tambakon iwr awdyah, One man-to twosonswere. The-younger his-father-to said, biteki bakrath 60 abba. anrsith gata.' enge athe Ānko Then ٠0 father, property-of portion me-to will-come thatgive.' hechägkeh chichah. Pulond dini arik dokkeh chud Few them-to having-divided gave. days having-stayed young goteni tungah ante gech dēsik urqqeh mageh ekyah, far allgatheredsonandcountry-to having-come-out went, ante tang-ki biten dagraha kāje-no ano ongvah. Goteni bad deeds-in and there his property consumed. Allongyah ani $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ desino akäleth utrāth, ante āh kir-waroti that consumed andcountry-in famine fell, andto-hunger Āh jejyah. ā dēsiki ortmalen birgrkeh ano He thatcountry-of began. one man having-joined there dōkoti jejyah; ani āh ahin kise charātroti tang ketek teyah. andto-live began; hehimpigs to-tend hisfield-to sent. Ante āh kisth ā mogāth choprat tangki kochon urdoti And he pigs ate thathusk-with his bellyto-fill uglechah, nēreh je goțe ahik chiylah. \mathbf{Ani} āh bijorārkeh he-wished, butanyone even him-to Then he gave-not. having-come-to-senses 'eng abba awdyah, adano ikoudi bērni-kudurik lapeth ēgrith, said, father's house-in how-many servants-to food is-sufficient, kiret keyin. ante ēn Ēn chöcheken abba eng bahak ēken, andΙ hunger-from die. I having-arisen myfather nearwill-go, " o ahin awden, ante abba. $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{n}$ merg panteno ante ning bahano " O andhim-to will-say, father, I heaven towardsand thyplace-in pāpen kudken. Ante aneke ēn ningad ānuwr joker maleken. Je sindid. And now to-be-called worthy I thy-son am-not. But ningki bērni-kuduri chow engen mēnja." $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{k}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{h}$ $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{h}$ chōchah antewages-worker likeme make." Having-said hearose and tambako bahak ekyah. Āh gechi behnihi, tambakoh ahin tundkeh his-father's place-to went.Hefar being-when, his-father him having-seen chengiyah, ante bong-kitrkeh bängretrah ante chumqah. Tangadeh. ahin pitied, andrunning-approaching him embracedandkissed. His-son

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o abba, merg panteno ante ning bahano awdyah, ēn ahin pāpen O father, I heaven regarding and thy place-in him-to said, ningad joker male-ken.' ante aneke nandu anuwr kudken. Tambakoh thy-son and now again to-be-called fitam-not. His-father 'gotente chākriyarin awdyah, ēŗu pinderen ondrker ahin tang said. 'all-from goodcloth having-brought him his servants-to ahiki tetuno angtin, qedno jutan attra. Ante borgo chuytra, ante cause-to-wear, andhis hand-on ring, feet-on shoes put. And fatted laplet ante apokārlet, athik ondrker ōy-magon, $n\bar{a}m$ therefore having-brought should-eat and should-make-merry, cow-young, menjah, aneke nandu jiyaryah; pita; ī engadeh keyp je revived : he-was-lost, my-son dead butnow again thiswas. kill; je aneke anduwrah.' Ante ār apokāroti jejyar. they was-found. to-make-merry began. but Andnow

keteno dokyah. Kirneh ada Ahiki mēgro tangadeh ā gari Returning he house eldesthis-son that time field-in was. Hischākriyan anrskeh lale-pāre-ki sadin menjah. Ante ort atgi having-reached dancing-singing-of sound heard. And servant oneindrth?' āny menjah. Āh ahin awdyah, 'ning-doh ' ith bīkkeh. thy-brother ' this what?' thus asked. Hе him-to said, having-called, ālagkeh borgo abboh ahin ērugani andah ōy magon barchah, ante therefore fatted young and thy-father him well found cow came, mar-menlah. Jе ahi koroti āh rökarkeh ule pityah.' Ānko willing-was-not. But his Then hehaving-got-angry inside to-enter killed. Āh tambakon awde-kirtrah, bortrah. ahin tambakoh urggeh having-come-out him entreated. He his-father-to said-returned, his-father sēwch dōkin, ante ikonno inond bacheri ēn ningen 'tunda, and ever years Ι thee having-served am, so-many see, sangal apokārlen, gote ningki ukmen tuwleken, je eng sangaleri ēn with should-rejoice, companions command broke-not, but Ι myeven thy maqon enge qatleki; nīn ikonno goțe maqond ēŗ athik gavest-not; butthouever even one sheep young me-to therefore ningadeh barchah, ani nīn langwino ongyah, ā biten ningki came, then thouharlotry-in consumed, that thy-son property thy 60 ahin awdyah, pitki.' Ānko āh ahi lagki borgo maqon ōу .0 him-to said, killedest.' Then he his sake-for fatted cow young āth ningkith. Je ī sangal jugek behne; engkith engade, nīn eng But this thine. mine that thou mewith alwaysart; my-80n, anduwrah, ewjyah, je nandu ujih; ningdoh keyp menjah, je but was-found, was-lost, thy-brother dead was, but again lives; behith.' alagkith name apokāroti lalopäroti it-is. therefore us-to to-dance-and-sing to-make-merry

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

MALTO.

SPECIMEN II.

(SONTHAL PARGANAS.)

mulekeno agdu maler ī gol-rājarki amlente Mundi-mundi the-men this country-in Formerly-formerly Hindu-kings-of time-from beforekudyar chaqar. Dokno Atino ange-mange qale-kukre dokker tam mar-meñjar. Living madesowed.field-plot living their will-did. There their-own dokno goler ī mulukek anrsker maleri guni gare baje-naqe withmuch fighting-mutually Hindus this country-to having-come men living gale bachyar. Maler dokyar, ante arin tideker āriki qeqle ante The-men andfield robbed. were, andthemhaving-overcome theirlanddōkoti Dadeno ār jejyar. tamki gepe ante gale ambker dadeno forest-in to-live began. Forest-in they their villages having-leftandfieldsā-lagker ār äw-äwen qale-kukre ēr-ēru kudoti chaqoti polar, field-plots were-unable, therefore they thosegood-good to-make to-sow ahran charchar, ante chañje māke tungrle bīr-menlar, je gahnd-gahndi did-not-attend, but many-many having-gathered hunt made, deerstaggolerki biten chitran kise ante ado sāwajen pitle, ba ino ano spotted-deer pigs and other animals there Hindus-of property killing, or hereluschle qepik ·tam-tamki peler ante ondrar. Ante iw-iwti mager plundering village-to these-from their-their wives sons brought. And ujyar. Ār menjar, ā-lagker gare chechrun ante bary goler lived. · They very cunning powerful therefore Hindus and were, arin daryoti ba tekyoti polar. themcatch hinder could-not.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In old times, before the time of the Hindū kings, the Paharias lived in this country and did just as they liked. They tilled and sowed their own plots. In the course of time the Hindūs came into the country and began to fight the Paharias. At last they overpowered them and took their lands and fields from them. The Paharias then left their villages and their fields and began to live in the woods. They could not there till and sow good plots, and therefore they left off attending to them, but began to gather in great flocks and turned to hunting. They killed deer, stags, spotted deer, pigs, and other animals, and they occasionally also plundered the property of the Hindūs and brought it home to their villages. Their wives and children lived from such things. The hillmen were very cunning and powerful, and the Hindūs could not, therefore, catch them or check them.

KUI, KANDHĪ, OR KHOND.

The Kandhs or Khonds are a Dravidian tribe in the hills of Orissa and neighbouring districts, and the number of speakers may be estimated at about half a million people.

The tribe is commonly known under the name of Khond. The Oriyās call them Kandhs, and the Telugu people Gōnds or Kōds. The name which they use themselves is Ku, and their language should, accordingly, be denominated Kui. The word Ku is probably related to Kōī, one of the names which the Gōnds use to denote themselves. The Kōī dialect of Gōndī is, however, quite different from Kui. Compare the specimens on pp. 545 and ff.

The Khonds live in the midst of the Oriyā territory. Their habitat is the hills separating the districts of Ganjam and Vizagapatam in the Madras Presidency and continuing northwards into the Orissa Tributary States, Bod, Daspalla, and Nayagarh, and, crossing the Mahanadi, into Angul and the Khondmals. The Khond area further extends into the Central Provinces, covering the northern part of Kalahandi, and the south of Patna.

Kui is surrounded, on all sides, by Oriyā. Towards the south it extends towards the confines of the Telugu territory.

The language varies locally all over this area. The differences are not, however, great, though a man from one part of the country often experiences difficulty in understanding the Kui spoken in other parts. There are two principal dialects, one eastern, spoken in Gumsur and the adjoining parts of Bengal, and one western, spoken in Chinna Kimedi. According to the report of the Madras Census of 1891 the caste called Konda, Kondadora, or Kondakapu, which is found on the slopes and the eastern summits of the eastern Ghats in Vizagapatam, speak a dialect of Kui, though they returned Telugu as their native tongue. The Madras Presidency not falling within the scope of this Survey, we have no new materials for testing this statement.

In the north, Kui has come under the influence of the neighbouring Aryan forms of speech, and a specimen forwarded from the Patna State was written in Oriyā with a slight admixture of Chhattīsgaṛhī.

The number of Kandhs returned at the Census of 1891 was 627,388. The language returns, however, give a much smaller figure. The reason is that many Kandhs have abandoned their native speech. To some extent, however, the discrepancy is also due to incorrect returns and to the fact that 306,241 of the inhabitants of the Ganjam and Vizagapatam Agencies did not return their language.

The revised figures for Kui in those districts where it is spoken as a home tongue are as follows:—

190,893
61,550
46,622
14,928
65,600
759
64,850
318,043

The bulk of Kui	speakers in the	Oriss	a Tri	butary	States	are	found	in	Bod, Das-
palla, and Nayagarh.									
D 1				9	U1 21				924

Bod						•			924
Daspalla									
								•	4,523
•						То	TAL		13,741

Of the remaining 1,187, some few speakers are found in all States except Athgarh, Hindol, Keunjhar, Morbhanj, Nilgiri, Ranpur, and Tigaria.

Outside the Kui territory the language has only been returned from the Cachar Plains where the Kandhs are employed as coolies in the tea-gardens. Local estimates give 549 as the number of speakers. We thus arrive at the following total:—

Kui spoker, at home	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	318,043
Kui spoken abroad.	•	•		•	٠	•	•	•		•	549
								Тот	АL		318,592
t the last Census	of 190	1 Kui	was	retu	$\mathbf{r}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{d}$	\mathbf{from}	the	follo	wir	ng distri	icts:—
Madras Presidency						•	•		•	•	372,366
Ganjam .								•	•	19,758	
Ganjam Agency										157,325	
Vizagapatam							•		•	18,818	
Vizagapatam A										175,747	
Godavari						•		•		3	
Godavari Agend	ey .					•		•	•	690	
Bellary .		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	3	
South Arcot						•				22	
Bengal and Feudato	ries .										55,655
Midnapore										2	
Rangpore										27	
Cuttack .										4	
Balasore .										1	
Angul and Kho	ndmals									40,088	
Puri .										. 8	
Orissa Tributar	v States									15,525	
Central Provinces											54,242
Sambalpur					_					7	
Bamra .	•		•	•	•	•		1	-	7	
Sonpur .		•	•	•	•	•	•			3	
Patna .	• •	•		•	:				- 1	94	
Kalahandi	•		·		•				- [54,131	
Assam	: :	•	Ō		•					,	11,827
		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	210	11,02
Sylhet .	• . •	•	•	•	•	•	•	.•	•	4	
Darrang .	• . •		•	•	• .	• •	٠.	•	•	10,335	
Sibsagar .	• • •	•	•	• '	•	•	•	•	•	1,278	
Lakhimpur	•	•	•	•	• `	•	•	•	•	1,210	9
United Provinces	٠. ٠	. •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
								To	TAL		494,099

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- Kui is not a literary language and does not possess a character of its own. The

 Gospel of St. Mark and parts of the Old Testament
 have been translated into the language, and have been
 printed in the Oriyā character.

The dialect spoken in Gumsur has been dealt with in the grammars published by Messrs. Lingum Letchmajee and Smith, and is relatively well known. It may be considered as the Standard form of the language, and the remarks which follow apply to it.

Pronunciation.—The short a is pronounced as the a in 'pan.' In the Khondmals it has a broader sound, probably that of a in 'all,' and it is often written o in the specimens. Thus, $rat\bar{a}$ and $rot\bar{a}$, big. The long \bar{a} is, according to Mr. Lingum Letchmajee, shortened before i and h, and when followed by double consonant. Thus, $a\tilde{i}$, I come, but $\bar{a}di$, thou comest; $mass\bar{e}$, I was. The specimens, however, do not confirm this rule. In words such as $mass\bar{e}$ they simplify the consonant and preserve the \bar{a} long; thus, $m\bar{a}s\bar{e}$, I was. Similarly the \bar{a} is written long in $\tilde{a}\tilde{i}$, I am; $\bar{e}a\tilde{n}ju$, he, and so forth.

Similar is the case with \bar{e} before double consonant. Lingum Letchmajee writes $ess\bar{e}$, Major Smith $\bar{e}ss\bar{e}$, and the specimens $\bar{e}s\bar{e}$. In Kalahandi, the double ss in such words is replaced by ch; thus, $m\bar{a}ch\bar{e}$, I am.

 $\dot{\mathcal{D}}$ is often pronounced as r in the Khondmals; thus, $g\bar{o}d\bar{a}$ and $g\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, horse. In Chinna Kimedi l is used instead. Thus, $p\bar{a}du$ and $p\bar{a}lu$, milk; iddu and illu, house. In Kalahandi l is also often substituted for r; thus, $n\bar{e}g\bar{a}li$, Standard $n\bar{e}g\bar{a}ri$, a good woman.

In Orissa and the Central Provinces a v commonly becomes b; thus, $b\bar{e}st\bar{e}nju$, Standard vestenju, he said. In the Khondmals we even find $\bar{e}b\bar{a}nju$, he; $\bar{e}b\bar{a}ru$, they, corresponding to Standard $\bar{e}anju$, $\bar{e}aru$. The Standard form is also used in Kalahandi. A comparison with Telugu $v\bar{a}du$, Kanarese avanu, he, shows that the v in this word has been dropped in the Standard. The form $\bar{e}anju$ seems to correspond to Kanarese avanu. The substitution of nj for n in connected languages is especially common in Kalahandi where we find forms such as $\bar{e}anji$, Standard $\bar{e}ani$, his.

Inflexional system.—The usual inflexional forms will be found in the Skeleton Grammar on pp. 462 and f. For further details the student is referred to the works quoted above under Authorities. I shall here only make a few general remarks.

Nouns.—Kui agrees with Telugu and Gondī in using the same form for the feminine and neuter singular. Thus, gināri, the woman, or animal, that does. The pronouns and verbal tenses likewise have one and the same form for the feminine and neuter plural of the third person.

The suffixes of the plural are ru for men, and wi, ga, and ska for the feminine and neuter. These suffixes must be compared with ru and gal in Kanarese, Tamil, etc. $\bar{o}r$, $\dot{n}g$, and k in Gōṇḍī.

The old numerals are apparently disappearing, being replaced by Aryan forms. The Dravidian numerals are still in use up to seven. 'Five' is singi and 'six' sajgi. Compare Tamil anju, Gondi saiyūng, five; Tamil anu, Gondi sarūng, six.

Pronouns.—The personal pronoun of the first person has two forms of the plural, one including, and the other excluding, the person addressed. The former is called a dual by Lingum Letchmajee. The form occurs, however, as an ordinary inclusive plural in the first specimen from the Khondmals. Thus, $\bar{a}ju\ tin\bar{a}$, we shall eat. It should be noted that there is a similar distinction in the first person plural of the verb. The inclusive plural does not seem to exist in Kalahandi.

Verbs.—There are only two proper tenses, the indefinite and the past. The indefinite tense is used as a future and a present. The negative verb has the same two tenses. Kui in this respect must be compared with old Kanarese. Other tenses are formed by adding the verb substantive to the verbal participles. These are never used alone, but, with the addition of a $n\bar{a}$, they are used to form adverbial phrases. Thus, $p\bar{a}gin\bar{a}$ -vio, when beating; $p\bar{a}g\bar{a}n$ - $\bar{a}i$, having become a beater, having beaten. Compare the relative participles in Telugu. The ordinary relative participles in Kui are slightly different.

When the preceding remarks are borne in mind it is hoped that the short sketch of Kui grammar which follows will enable the student to grasp the forms occurring in the specimens. For further details the works of Lingum Letchmajee and Major Smith should be consulted. The former is the base of the present sketch, which illustrates the Kui dialect spoken in Gumsur and Bod. No specimens have been received from those districts. The short tale which follows on p. 464 has been taken from Major Smith's Handbook. It will be noticed that long vowels are used in many cases where they ought to be short according to Lingum Letchmajee, and that double consonants are often simplified. Thus, $mr\bar{a}n\bar{u}-g\bar{a}t\bar{a}nju$ instead of $mr\bar{a}nu-gattanju$, the owner of the mangoes. I have added an interlinear translation. In one or two places it is not quite certain.

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KUI SKELETON GRAMMAR.

I.—NOUNS.—Masculine nouns form their plural in ru; thus, $\bar{a}b\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{a}b\bar{a}ru$, fathers; $tina\bar{n}ju$, an eater; pluratināru. Other nouns add $sk\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}$, or $g\bar{a}$. Thus, $\bar{a}ngi$ - $sk\bar{a}$, sisters; $vik\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, bundles of straw; $k\bar{a}di$ - $ng\bar{a}$, cows. So also masculine nouns ending in $\bar{a}ni$, e.g. $l\bar{a}ve\bar{n}ju$, a young man; plur. $l\bar{a}ve\bar{n}g\bar{a}$. Feminine nouns ending in $\bar{a}ri$ take $\bar{a}wi$. Thus, $tin\bar{a}ri$, she who eats, plur. $tin\bar{a}wi$.

	lāvenju,	a young man.	$d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$, elder brother.	2.0
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	,
Nom.	lāvenju.	lāvengā.	dādā.	dādāru.	Nouns ending in <i>ñju</i> form their singu- lar as <i>lāveñju</i> , other nouns as <i>dādā</i> .
Acc.	lāvēni.	lāvengāni.	$d\bar{a}d\bar{a}ni.$	dādāri.	Other postpositions are tini, tangi, tingi, and tiki, to; tai, dai, tōti, and
Dat.	lāvēniki.	lāvengāniki.	dādāki.	dādāriki.	tākā, from ; tanni, tā, lai, lai-tā,
Gen.	lāvēni.	lāvengāni.	$d\bar{a}d\bar{a}ni.$	dādāri.	in; wāhā-tā, near; kē, with, etc. They are added to the same form as the dative suffix ki.

Adjectives are indeclinable. Adjectives are formed from nouns by adding gatta; thus, data-gatta, strength-having strong.

II.-PRONOUNS.-

	I.	We (inclus.).	We (exclus.).	Thou.	You.	Who?	
Nom. Dat. Gen.	ānu. nangē. nā, naï.	āju. ammangē. ammāni.	āmu. mangē. mā, maī.	īnu. ningē. nī.	īru, miṅgē. mī.	imbāi. imbēriki. īmbēri.	In Chinna Kimedi there are separate forms for the accusative, viz., nanna, me; mamma, us; ninna, thee; mimma, you. In Bod and Gumsur the dative is used instead. Who? is also umbāi, imbāri, and imbāru.
	He.	She, it.	Masc.	hey.	. Sing	Self.	
Nom. Acc. Dat. Gen.	ēānju. ēāni. ēāniki. ēāni.	ēri, ērā. ērāni. ērāniki. ērāni.	ēāri.	ēwi, ēwa (-skā). ēwaskāni. ēwaskāniki. ēwaskāni.	tānu. tānā. tānāk tānā.	tārā.	Instead of ēanju, etc., we also find ēwanju, oanju, etc. Tānu has a feminine trai, and the genitive is often trā instead of tānā.

Like ēanju are inflected ianju, this man; estanju, who? Innā, what? is indeclinable. Innāri; what? is inflected like ēriit. Adjectival pronouns are ā, ē, ō, that; i, this; esti, which?

III.-VERBS.-A.-Regular verbs.-Principal parts.-

Verbal noun.	pāga, to beat.	mehpa, to see.	kōpa, to cut.	$\bar{a}wa$, to become.	giwa, gipka, to do
Inf. of purpose.	pāgboņķi.	meḥboṇḍi.	kōboṇḍi.	āboņḍi.	gibondi.
Conjunctive participle, Present	pāgi.	mehpi.	kōi.	aï.	gi(pk)i.
,, Past	pāga.	mēha.	kōa.	āja.	gia.
Rel. part.					
Pres. and fut.	pāgini.	meķni.	kōni.	āni.	gini.
" Neg.	pāgāni.	mēhāni.	kōāni.	āāni.	giāni.
Past.	pāgiti.	mehti.	kōti.	āti.	giti.
" Neg.	pāgāti.	mēkāti.	kōāti.	āāti.	giāti.
Present and fut.	pāgiī.	mēhī.	kōî.	ar.	giš.
" Neg.	pāgēnu.	mēhēnu.	kōēnu.	āēnu.	giēnu.

II.—VERBS—contd.
A.—Regular verbs.—Principal parts—contd.

Verbal noun.	pāga, to beat.	meḥpa, to see.	kōpa, to cut.	$\bar{a}wa$, to become.	giwa, gipka, to do
Past tense.	pāgitē.	meļtē.	kōtē.	ātē.	gitē.
" Neg.	pāgātē (-nu).	mēhātē(-nu).	kōātē(-nu).	$\bar{a}\bar{a}t\bar{e}(-nu)$.	giātē(-nu).
Imperative.	pāgāmu.	mehmu.	kōmu.	āma.	gimu.
" Neg.	pāgā.	mēhā.	kōā.	āā.	$gi\bar{a}$.

Personal terminations .-

	Present	and future.	Pas	t tense.	Imper	ative.	
	Positive.	Negative.	Positive.	Negative.	Positive.	Negative.	
Sing. 1. 2. 2m. 3 f. & n.	pāgiī. pāgidi. pāginenju. pāginē.	pāgēnu. pāgāi. pāgenju. pāgē.	pāgitē. pāgiti. pāgitenju. pāgitē.	pāgātē(-nu). pāgāti. pāgātenju. pāgātē.	pāgāmu.	pāgā.	All other regular verbs are inflected in the same way. The plura of the positive imperative ends in du when the singular does not end in āmu. Thus gidu, do ye.
Pl. 1. incl. 1 excl. 2. 3 m. 3 f. & n.	pāgina. pāgināmu. pāgidēru. pāginēru. pāginu.	pāgassu. pāgāmu. pāgēru. pāgēru. pāgēru.	pāgita. pāgitāmu. pāgitēru. pāgitēru. pāgitētu.	pāgātassu. pāgātāmu. pāgātēru. pāgātēru. pāgātēru.	pāgātu.	pāgātu.	

B .- Irregular Verbs .- Manba, to be.

f	Pre	sent.		Past.	
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	
1 incl. 1 excl.	maĩ.	manna. mannāmu. manjēru.	massē.	massāmu. massēru.	The imperative is manmu, plur. muniju The corresponding negative veri sidenu, I am not; sidete, I was not is regularly inflected.
3 m.	manneñju.	mannēru.	masseñju.	massēru.	
3 f. & n.	mannē.	mannu.	massē.	massu.	

In the same way are conjugated punba, to know; venba, to hear; tinba, to est. Present conjunctive participle punji, venji, tinji; Past conjunctive participle punji, venja, tinja. Similarly also salba, to go; Present conj. part. sajji; Past conjunctive part. salla or sajja; Present and future saī, 2nd person sajji, plur. sānēru; Past sassē, Imperative salmu or sajju, plural saldu.

Compound tenses.—Formed by adding the verb manba, to be, to the present and past conjunctive participles. Thus, gipki-mas, I am doing; gipki-mass (in Gumsur gipkisse), I was doing; gia-mas, I have done, etc.

A kind of precative is formed from the verbal noun by adding kānu, 2 kādi, 3 m. kanju, 3 f. & n. kāri; plur. 1 kāmu (kāsu), kādu, 3 m. kāru, 3 f. & n. kāwi. Thus, salba-kāru, let them go.

Condition is denoted by adding ēkā to the past relative participle; thus, ānu gitākā, if I do, or did.

Aki added to the past relative participle and and added to the verbal noun denote the cause. Thus, chengi gitaki, or, giwane, because (they) did so.

 $Mu\tilde{i}$, I can, and $ku\tilde{i}$, I will not, are added to the verbal noun; thus, $\bar{a}mu$ give $mu\bar{a}mu$, we cannot do.

Verbal nouns are formed from the relative participles by adding the terminations of the personal pronoun of the third person. Thus, tinanju, an eater; fem. and neut. tinari.

A second set of relative participles are formed from the present and past conjunctive participles by adding $n\bar{a}$. These forms are always used when the participles are used by themselves. They are combined with particles in order to form adverbial clauses. Thus, $p\bar{a}gin\bar{a}$ -vio, when beating; $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -wz, when coming; $p\bar{a}g\bar{a}nai$, $p\bar{a}g\bar{a}naig\bar{a}$, $p\bar{a}g\bar{a}naiko$, having beaten. $A\bar{i}$, $ang\bar{a}$, and ai-ko are old conjunctive participles of $\bar{a}wa$, to become. The negative conjunctive participle is also a compound form, and is formed by adding $\bar{a}n$ -ang \bar{a} (in Chinna Kimēdi $\bar{a}n$ -ang \bar{a}) to the past conjunctive participle. Thus, $p\bar{a}g\bar{a}n$ -ang \bar{a} , not having struck.

Passive voice.—Not in common use. Formed by adding āwa, to become, to the verbal nom. Thus, giwa-ātē, it is done.

[No. 40.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KUI, KANDHÎ OR KHOND.

(Major J. McD. Smith, 1876.)

KOGĀŃJŪ ĒŅGĀ MĀHĀ-MRĀNŪ-GĀṬĀŃJŪ.

BOY AND MANGOE-TREE-OWNER.

Mrānū dēgātānni koksānāikā iēdā prēk-ātēnjū. Kogānjū māhā Tree branch-in sitting heart stealing-became. A-boy mangoes tānā Tińjisāwā būdā-gātānjū roānjū mrānū-gātānjū jilli-dāi tinjisēnjū. iree-owner old-man one hisgladness-in eating-was. Eating-when kogāni mēhitēnju; mēhā-nāi Wājā-nāi $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ pēski-wātēnjū. māhā having-seen mangoes gathering-came. Having-come thatboy saw; gidi mrānūtānni? dāndē wāmū, nāi ānā 'kogānthi ēri mādē. tree-in? what doestquickly come, ' boy that in, wāwā-giễ,' vēstēnjū. ٠Āē būdāińji issingātēkā wāātēkā said. ^{c}Nay oldto-come-shall-make, saying somehow comest-not-if pāńjitēkā gidi? Ānū wāēnū: ţūţū ēssē-vē gātāndi dē. will-not-come; bellywhatever will-you-do? I filled-when one wāānu.' ārtēkā ēssē-vē Būdā-gātānjū ārā vēnjāinū wāĕ, The-old-man will-not-come.' thathavingthou callest-if · ever will-come, vaēnjū sūdię̃,' gitēkā vānēnjū ginnā 'ānū āspā nāi. will-not-come shall-see. do-if he-will-come heard. frightening vivānē dējālkā āhānāi ikkē vitēniu: kogānjū kogi-kogi iñji threw; throwing-from the-boy small-small clodstaking gently saying būdā-gātānthi dē, ivi āwāniki, 'vivi-dūmū, vivi-dūmū kāksānāi old-one to-throw-continue thesehim-to, 'to-throw-continue, laughing kopki-dūë, iñji pātēkā ān?-imbānē ēsitēnjū; annāri to-sit-will-continue, will-be?-here-indeed saying said: what hit-if būdā-gāṭānjū tānā jēdātā, 'dējālkā vitēkā ānni-vē āā-ātē: ēsānē 'clods throw-if anything not-becoming-is: his mind-in. the-old-man on-saying sūdiẽ, ginnā āē iñji vāddingā vitēkā ānni ānē idē not-willwill-see, throw-if what will-happen or stones saying now dāndē vitēnjū; dātā-dāi dāndē vivānē dēri dāddingā āhānāi dēri taking force-with quickly quickly threw; throwing-from stones bigbigkogānjū riānāi mrānū-tikā ditēnjū, divā-dāndē pānpānē dēhānē pātū, fell, falling-immediately hit, hitting-from the-boy crying tree-from būdāgāṭāñjū āhānāi dūrā-dāi dēhānē sāhātēnjū. beat. the-old-man seizing stick-with much

KUI. 465

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A lad went to steal mangoes, and, seated on a branch, was eating to his heart's content, when an old man who owned the tree came to gather his fruit, and espied the lad there. 'Hey, my lad,' exclaimed he, 'what are you about on my tree? Come down at once, or I will make you do so somehow or other.' 'Nay, old fellow, what will you do? I will not come. When I am satisfied, I will, but not certainly at your bidding.' On hearing this the old man said, 'I will see whether I can frighten him down or not,' an he began to throw little clods of earth at him gently; but the boy, laughing at him, exclaimed, 'throw on, old fellow, throw on. If these do hit me, what does it matter? I shall sit quietly here.' On this the old man said within himself, 'there is no use in throwing clods of earth. I will see whether anything will result from throwing stones.' So saying he took up some very large ones, and threw them with force and rapidity. A number of them struck the boy, who fell down out of the tree crying, when the old man seized him immediately, and gave him a sound beating with a stick.

The specimens received from the Khondmals represent the same form of Kui as that spoken in Gumsur and Bod. There are, however, some traces of the influence of the neighbouring Oriyā. Thus the interrogative pronoun is often used as a relative, and a b has been substituted for every w or v. The cerebral d is often pronounced as an r, and so on. Long vowels are used as in the preceding specimen, and double consonants are simplified. On the whole, however, the dialect is the same.

The first specimen is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son. The second is a short folktale, which is also found in Major Smith's Handbook, on pp. 68 and ff. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 648 and ff.

[No. 41.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KUI, KANDHĪ OR KHOND.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT KHONDMALS.)

Raāni ri mrikā māsēru. Ebār-tākā kogāñju tānā ābāki bēstēnju, One-of sons were. Them-from the-younger father-to said. 'ābā, nidana-tākā nāngē diānē ēsē bāgā $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ siāmu.' Ehēngā thyfather, property-from me-to whichshare will-fall thatgive.' Then ēbāñju tānā dana ēbārki bāgā-giā sitēnju. Ikali dinā sāsēkā hepassed-when hisproperty them-to share-making Fewgave. days kogēri mriēnju gulē danauspā-māsēnju, ēhēngā dēsāki durā sājā all property collecting-was, younger. son then far country-to going 3 o

Esti-belā gulē udi-gitēnju. dana buditā gulē Embā rai māsēnju. allWhat-time property spent-made. allsense-in bad was. There ēbāñju dēhā kalabalatā ēi-gēli diātē; udi-gitēnju ēmbā ratā jugā distress-in therefore . he fell; greatmightyfamine spent-made there rāhi-ātēñiu. raāni-kē dēsā ē sājā-nāi Irā-tā ēbānju ditēnju. staying-became. having-gone that country(-of) one-with fell. This-from heĒsti-bēlā kētā-tāngi pānditēnju. ēbāni-ki pāji-bidā kapā-tingi Ēi lōku Which-time sent. tending-for field-to pig-flock him That man tinārā ēbānju bēstēnju, 'nāi ābāri āliā-lōkungā isē pātēnju ēbāñiu ēlu so-much . food servants'my father's recoveredhesaid, sense sārāi-mānē; ānu · sākitā tiñjānākā mānēru jē ērā pānpi dying-am. I hunger-from thathaving-eaten to-spare-is; thatgetting are"ābā, bēsĩ. ānu sāĩ ēbāniki ābā sadiki ningānāi Ānu "father, Iwill-say, him-to father near-to will-go having-arisen māĩ. Νī mrienju bāgāritā sariti pāpa giā nī atē ratāpēnu Thysonam. beforehaving-done sinagainst andthee heaven gimu.", āliā Nāngē nī ra sānjai sidēnu. ilbātingi aţē ānu make." Me thy oneservantI worthy am-not. to-be-called anymore ikē duratā Ebāñju Ēbānju ningitēnju ēhēngā ābā sariki sāsēnju. distance-at Hesomewent. aroseand father near Helālaki ātēnju; ēhēngā mēhānāĩ ēi-bēlā tānā ābā ēbāniki mānēnju, kindbecame; andhaving-seen him his father that-time is, āhtēnju ēhēngā nanjitenju. Mrienju tāndā dakā sājānāi pińjanaka The-son and kissed. embraced his neck having-run having-gone māĩ. giā 'ābā, ratāpēnu bāgāritā pāpa nī sariți bēstēnju, ēbāniki having-done sinam.against theenear 'father, heaven said. him-to Tānā ābā sānjai sidēnu.' inbātingi . atē ānu Nī mriēniu father am-not. HisI worthy to-be-called anymoreson Thyţāţā-gidu, 'nēgi siņdā tādu ēhēngā ibāniki atē bēstēnju, āliā-lōkurki this-to to-put-on-make, and cloth bring and said, ' good servants-to āju gulē tinā ēhēngā Bādu, bāńjutā sidu, satēnii kādutā sidu. allshall-eat and Come, wering finger-on give, feet-on give. shoesēj-gitēnju: māsēru. sā-ājā mriēnju jē-gēli ī nāi iēdā-jēdā ginā; dead-become was, revived; son merry shall-make; thismybecausejēdā gibātiki, Dāōke ēbāru panpa-sasenju.' māsēnju, bānā-ājā to-make Then theymerry found-went.' lost-become was, lāgi-ātēru.

beginning-became.

māsēnju. Ehēngā ēbāñju Ei bēlātā tānā rațā mrienju kētātā And hefield-in was. That time-in hisbig son ēbāñju āliā-lōku Ehenga bēsēnju. ānābā aţē gáni idu-saritā enda And he servant dancing singing heard. coming and house-near

rāniki ārtēñju ēhēngi bēnjātēnju, ٠i gulē ini-gëli āi·mānē?' one-to calledasked, and'this allwherefore becoming-is?' Āliā bēstēnju, 'ni āu bātēnju; ni ābā ēbāniki nēgi The-servant said. 'thy younger-brother came; thy father him-to good sukutā pānsā-māni-gēli rață baji siā-mānēñju.' $Ir\bar{a}$ happiness-in getting-being-on-account-of bigfeastgiving-is.' This bēñjānākā ēbāñju sadāngi ājānāi idutangi sālbātiki mangiā having-heard heangry having-become house-into wishing-not to-go ātēnju. **Ēigēli** tānā ābā rāhātāngi bājānāi tāngē jāti became. Therefore his father outside having-come him-to muchbuji gitēnju. Ebānju tānā ābāki bēstēnju, 'mēhimu, ābā, ānu *entreating* made.Hehis father-to said, 'lo, father, I isē bāsāri ātē ni kāmā gitē; ēsēkābē nidā hukum this-many years . becamethy work did; ever thycommand dēgā-ātēnu. Irā ātēkā-bē nāngē tanēlōkurki boji gibātiki transgressing-not-was. This being-though . me my-friends-to feastto-make ēsēkābē raņdā adā siā sidāi. Ni ēsti mriēnju dāri-giānākā ever giving onegoat wast-not. Thywhichsonharlotry-making nindā gulē dana udi-giā-mānēñju, ēbāñju bāti-dāndē thyallproperty squandered-making-was, hecoming-immediately tānā-gēli boji , siti.' Tānā ābā ٠ē bēstēnju, mrienti, his-sake-for feastgavest.' 60 Hisfather said, son, thourāhāna nākē māñji. Nāndē jāhā mānē, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ gulē nindā. I ni always me-with are.Mine whatis, thatallthine. Thisthysājānākā, ējgitēnju; bānā-ājānākā, rānpā-sāsēnju: dead-having-become, younger-brother revived; lost-having-become, was-found: ēigēli jēdā-jēdā gibā \mathbf{m} āndē ādāi-mānē. thereforeour merry making proper-is.'

[No. 42.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KUI, KANDHĪ OR KHOND.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT KHONDMALS.)

KRĀŅDI AṬĒ KORUKĀ.

TIGER AND BUFFALOES.

tinĩ, 'randāni krāndi surā-nāi, Korukā tinji-māsu. Randā having-seen, one one will-eat, One tiger Buffaloes eating-were. . āskānāi pēkitu. Korukā koskā-rāi ēbāskāni bāhāki sāsē. iñji horn-with pushing drove-off. Buffaloes went. presence-to saying their giānāi Ēri putupuți dāō āhāppā muātē. **Ē**igēli ēri having-made deception could-not. He afterwardsseize Therefore hera-anju māĩ; iru sujāmāni pājā 'nēnju randā odā isē, having-killed am ; you one fat goatone said, 'to-day kāmuli suāri bājānāi tisēkā gāra bāhāki bilāni bēlātā nāi coming eat-if very pleased den near time-at night my bēnōti suritē; sājānāi gulē ēmbāki Randē koru āĩ. allsides saw; buffalo thereto having-gone shall-be. One dēri bājā-tēki gāra muhutā bējgu dēri dēhānē ēmbā denmouth-at cooking-pots fuel largelarge muchtherekindri-ājānāi Ērā gulē surānāi koru mānē. itā-ājā the-buffalo having-turned That allhaving-seen are. kept bājānāi pāturitā guhitē. Guh-āimāsā-bā sājā-māsi fled. Fleeing-when going-having-been having-come way-on 'imbāki bāhāki bājānāi bēstē, bāti, ērāni krāndi 6 here thou-camest, said, the-tiger him near having-come I bēstē. 'ni sāji-māñji?' koru krāndini rai ināki said, This the-tiger-to 'thy evil going-art? buffalo why I bājātēki pānbā-sāji-mānē. bejgu budi klārnā This fuel cooking-pot clearly caught-is. intention dehingi janta bājātingi odā bājā-tiki āē, nāi rotā to-cook likebiganimalto-cook not-is, me goat dāhā-mānji, guhitē. inji having-prepared-art, saying fled.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A tiger saw some buffaloes grazing and went to kill one of them. But they drove him off with their horns, and he could not seize any of them. He then, in order to deceive them, said, 'I have to-day killed a very fat goat, and shall be much pleased if one of you will come to my den to-night and partake of it.' One of the buffaloes accordingly came, looked about, and saw a lot of fire-wood and big kettles. He got frightened and ran away by the road he had gone in coming. The tiger ran after him and asked why he fled. The buffalo answered, 'I clearly understand your evil design. This fuel and these cooking pots you have not prepared in order to cook a goat, but for a big animal like me,' and so saying he ran away.

The dialect spoken in Chinna Kimedi does not seem to differ much from that dealt with in the preceding pages. The cerebral d is changed to l, and d is sometimes substituted for s. The numerals are said to be Dravidian, as far as ten.

The personal pronouns have a separate form for the accusative, viz. nanna, me; mamma, us; ninna, thee; mimma, you. These forms are identical with those used in Kanarese.

The terminations di and du in the second person singular and plural of the present tense are sometimes changed to ri and ru, respectively. Compare the Telugu termination ru in the second person plural.

The ma of massē, I was, etc., is not elided in the compound tenses. Thus, gipki-massē, not gipkissē, I was doing; giā-massē, not giassē, I had done.

The negative conjunctive participle is formed in a different way from that usual in Gumsur. Thus, ēāni suḍāān-aṅga, without having seen him.

The preceding notes have been taken from Lingum Letchmajee's grammar. No specimens of the Chinna Kimedi dialect are available.

The specimens received from the Kalahandi State are written in a form of Kui which shares some of the characteristics of the Chinna Kimedi dialect. Thus, d becomes l, e.g. ilu, Standard iddu, house; $sal\bar{a}nga$, Standard $sad\bar{a}ngi$, angry. But we also find forms such as $ad\bar{a}$, a goat. Double ss seems to become ch. Thus, $m\bar{a}ch\bar{e}$, Standard $mass\bar{e}$, I was. This ch is probably only a way of writing s, to prevent its being pronounced as sh.

L often corresponds to r in other Kui dialects. Thus, $il\bar{a}$, this; $n\bar{e}g\bar{a}li$, a good woman.

An $\tilde{n}j$ occurs in many forms where other Kui dialects have n. Thus, $\bar{e}\tilde{a}\tilde{n}ji$, him; $\bar{e}\tilde{a}\tilde{n}ju$, his.

The form $\bar{e}\bar{a}\tilde{n}ju$, he, his, agrees with Standard in not pronouncing a w between \bar{e} and \bar{a} . In other cases w has become b as in the Khondmals. Thus, $b\bar{e}st\bar{e}\tilde{n}ju$, he said.

With regard to inflexional forms, we may note the accusative suffix i; thus, $\bar{a}b\bar{a}i$, the father; $\bar{e}\bar{a}\tilde{n}ji$, him. This form is commonly used as a dative as well. Datives such as iluku, to the house, are due to the influence of Oriyā, or they must be compared with the usual Telugu forms.

In other respects the dialect of Kalahandi well agrees with Standard Kui. Thus the accusative of the personal pronouns is identical with the dative, e.g. nāngē, me. Amu,

we, is also used when the person addressed is included. If this is not a simple mistake in the specimen, the fact is probably due to the influence of Oriyā.

It will be sufficient to give the Parable of the Prodigal Son as an illustration of this form of Kui.

[No. 43.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KUI, KANDHĪ, OR KHOND.

(STATE KALAHANDI.)

Ēāru-bāhātā kagāñju mrēnju trā ābā-i mrēnju māchēru. Rañji \mathbf{ri} his father-to One-of two Them-among the-younger were. sons ʻāhē bāgā pātapatiki ēhā siāmu.' ābā, mālātā ēchē mā bēstēnju, mi 'O father, your goods-in whatshareour getting-for thatgive.' said, bāgā-giānā sitēnju. Likē dinā mānjānā ēānju trā mālā ēāri Ēmbā his goods shares-making them Then gave. Fewdayshaving-passed mrēnju gulē radādā-giānā atēnju sēka dinā sājānā nēgi ē kagāñju together-making tookfar country going thatyounger son allgoodēmbā mutēnju. Gulē mutibëtati ë buddhi sidānā gulē mālā Allgoods there squandered. spentafter that country-in not-being allsenseĒ ēānju, bādā dukhā pātēnju. dinātā bādā sākhi pātēru, much distress suffered. That country-in much famine they-suffered, mētēñju ēānju bāhātā, ē ēānji dinātā ra-lōku pānjingā thathaving-gone that country-in one-man near, man him him pigspāņditēnju. kapātikā kētātā Ēmbā ēāñji amēñju inā tinbātiki siātēru. anyone anything There himto-eat to-herd field-in sent. gave-not. pānjātiki mana ${f E}$ māchā, mēhānā tutu gitēnju. pājingā tiñji Dādā were, seeing belly to-fill mindThose pigs eating made. At-last puchēnju bēstēnju, 'āhā. $n\bar{a}$ ābā-bāhātā ēāñju puñjānā ēchē guti-loku knew said, · 0, my father-with how-many servants having-known tinbātiki pādpi-mānēru, atē āmu sākitā nātēkā gāmā to-eat getting-are, butwe hunger-in dying-are. enough-from they moreābā-bāhātā bēsĩ, "āhē ābā, ānu Īśvara-bāhāt**ā** Āmu ningānā sājānā father-to having-gone will-say, "0 father, I arising God-before mi-bāhātā pāpa gitāmu. Mi mrēnju iñjānā bēspā-lōku sidāmu; did. having-said to-say-worthy you-before sinYour sonam-n > t; your ranju gutiloku dēhēngi māngē itāmu." Atē ēāñju ningānā $tr\bar{a}$ ābā keep." having-arisen hisone servant like me And he father tādā sāchēnju. Aţē ${f tr}ar{f a}$ ābā sēkati trānāi mēhānā śōka gitēnju Andfather went. hisfar-from himseeing compassion near made muskitēnju. pinjānā sājānā Embā atē $tr\bar{a}$ batā āhānā mrēnju ēānji catching kissed. running going hisneckThen the-son him-to-

bēstēnju, 'āhē ābā, Īśvara-bāhātā mi-bāhātā pāpa gitāmu, atē $_{
m mi}$ mrēñju 'O father, God-before you-before sinI-did, and your injānā bēspā-loku sidāmu.' $Tr\bar{a}$ ābā trā kuliloku-tiki bēstēnju, 'gulē-tēkā saying to-say-worthy am-not.' His father his servants-to said. 'all-from jirā tātā-sidu; ibānjā nēgi tāchānā kājutā mudingā sidu, ēānju kālutā put-on; good cloth bringing of-this hand-on ringsgive, feet-on pāndāngā sidu. Atē āmu gulē tiñjānā dātā ānāmu; $n\bar{a}$ ē ēnā give. And all having-eaten merry will-be; because my shoeswe thatmrēnju sājā-māchēnju, ējgitēnju; aţē ēānju mrāngā māchēnju, pātāmu.' dead-was. andrevived; helostwas, we-found. Embā ēāru udungu gibātiki giteru. Then they merry to-make made.

Ēchē-bēlā $tr\bar{a}$ drēi mrēñju kētātā māchēnju. Ēānju bātā-biā That-time his eldestfield-in sonwas. Hecoming-whilst ilutāngi bātēnju. Ēndā bājā dimāchē bēnjānā guti-loku ranjiyi benganā house-to came. Dance music sound hearing servant one'ilā benja-mistenju, inādiki ihingā gipki-mānēru?' bēstēnju, Ēāñju 'mi 'this inquired, why thusdoing-are?' Hesaid. · your tāmbēsā bātēnju, ēānji nēgi aţē mi ābā jēlātā pāti-gāli younger-brother came, andyour father him goodstate-in getting-because boji sibki-mānēnju.' Ēmbā salānga ājānā lāiki sālbātiki kutēnju. giving-is.' bigfeast Then angrybecoming inside to-go wished-not. Ēmbā trā ābā dārāti sāchānā gāmā ēānji Ehāngā bēstēnju. Then his father outside going him-to much said. But his ābā(-i) bēstēnju, 'mēhēndu, mibēndānā inikāthā gāmā father(-to)he-said, · lo. your anyordernot-transgressing many dinā-ātē $\mathbf{m}i$ $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ gipki-māĩ. Ēchētābē tanē gāspātiķi udungu days-became your work doing-I-am. Ever friends to-gather merry ājānā ēchētābē randā $ad\bar{a}$ māngē siā-sidāi. Ēhāngā mi mrēnju ever being onegoatme-to giving-wast-not. Butyour sondāri ilutā sājā-māchēnju, \mathbf{mi} gulē $m\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ mũtēñju, ēāñju harlots' house-to gone-is, your allproperty squandered, trā-bāti-gāli ēānji gāli drē boji siti.' $Tr\bar{a}$ ʻāhē tā $m \widetilde{n}$ m jibēstēnju, for returning-when himbigfeastgavest. Hisfather 00 said, mrēnju, inu $n\bar{a}t\bar{a}d\bar{a}$ mañji, atē mā-bāhātā ēchē mālā mānē thou me-near livest. and me-with what property isē gulē mindē. Aţē $id\bar{a}$ mi sājā māchēnju, ējgitēnju; āmbēsā that all thine. Andthis your younger-brother dead was, revived; ēānju mrāngā māchēnju, pātēnju; ēādiki ihingi udungu ājānā he lost was, was-found; therefore 80 merry having-become āmu gipki-mānāmu. doing-are. we

GÖNDĪ.

Göndī is the principal Dravidian language of Northern India, and is spoken by about one million people.

The word Gond occurs in the works of Sanskrit lexicographers like Hēmachandra as a term denoting a low tribe. The Gōnds have given their name to the tract of Gondwana, which corresponds to the greater part of what is now the Central Provinces. Their home has long been the plateau between the Nerbudda valley on the north and the Nagpur plains on the south, and connected tribes must have resided to the north of the Nerbudda in the hill tracts of Central India and Rajputana.

The word 'Gōṇḍ' is not now used by the Gōṇḍs themselves, the national name being Kōi. This name has been adopted by European scholars as the denomination of a subtribe of the Gōṇḍs in Chanda and Bastar and the adjoining districts of Hyderabad and the Madras Presidency. This distinction between Gōṇḍs and Kōis cannot be upheld from a philological point of view. The so-called Kōi is not a separate dialect, but an advanced form of Gōṇḍī with more points of analogy with Telugu than is the case in other districts. The other Gōṇḍ dialects of the same districts are of exactly the same kind. They are partly known simply as Gōṇḍī, and partly also distinguished by separate names. Thus the hill Gōṇḍs of Chanda are called Gaṭṭu or Goṭṭe, and others are known under the name of Māṛi or Maṛiā, i.e., perhaps 'forest-people.'

The materials collected for the purposes of the Linguistic Survey and printed below show that these various denominations are only local names for the border dialects where Göndi merges into Telugu. The various forms of what is known as Kōi are more different than is the so-called Gōndī from the so-called Kōi of Bastar.

The denomination Kōi, which is used by almost all Gōnds to denote themselves, should, therefore, be dropped as the name of a separate dialect. The same is the case with such names as Gattu and Mariā, and all the various dialects of Gōndī should be considered as one single form of speech, with local variations, which gradually approaches the neighbouring Telugu.

Area within which spoken. have been a numerous and powerful race, and their language must have been spoken over a very wide area. In the course of time, however, the bulk of them have come under the influence of Aryan civilisation, and have given up their old customs and their native language. At the Census of 1891 the number of Gönds was returned as 3,061,680, but only 1,379,580 were returned as speaking Gönds. Even those returns were probably a little above the mark. The information collected for the purposes of this Survey shows that Gönds has sometimes been returned as the language of people who in reality use some Aryan form of speech. Thus the so-called Gönds of Baghelkhand is a broken form of Baghēls, and the Gönd Öjhās of Chhindwara also use a jargon based on that form of speech, while the Gönds in the Orissa Tributary States speak a form of Oriyā, and so on. Other dialects which have formerly been considered as various forms of Gönds have long ago been classed as Aryan dialects. Such are for instance the Bhatrs dialect of Oriyā in the Bastar State; Halabī which language has, in this Survey, been dealt with in connexion

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with Marāṭhī, and several minor dialects which will be mentioned below under the heading Semi-Dravidian languages.

The area within which the Dravidian Gōndī is spoken is, therefore, much less extensive than it used to be. In many cases Gōndī remains in the hills but has been superseded by some Aryan form of speech in the plains. The Gōndī area is, therefore, not a continuous one, but consists of several islets, and even in those Gōndī is not the only language spoken, but other languages are used as well.

The heart of the Gōṇḍ country is the plateau of the Central Provinces from Wardha in the west and south to Balaghat and Mandla in the east and north. To the south of Nandgaon it continues through Bastar and Chanda into the Madras Presidency where we find Gōṇḍī spoken side by side with Telugu in Vizagapatam and Godavari, and further into Hyderabad where Telugu and Gōṇḍī are spoken all over the north-eastern portion of the State.

Beginning with Mandla, we find Göndi spoken in the north-west of Mandla and the adjoining hills in the south of Jabalpur, Narsinghpur, and Bhopal, while it is now practically extinct in Damoh and Saugor. It occupies the south-eastern corner of Hoshangabad and is spoken in the north of Chhindwara. We find it all over Betul and Amraoti, while it is gradually disappearing from the neighbouring districts of Ellichpur and Nimar. Gond communities speak the language in Akola, in the centre of Basim, and, partly interspersed with Köläms, in the district of Wun. Speakers of Göndi are scattered all over the districts of Wardha, Nagpur, and Seoni, in the north-east of Bhandara. and all over Balaghat and in the adjoining parts of Khairagarh. Gondi is further spoken in the hills of Western Bilaspur, and there are also a few scattered speakers in Sarangarh and Patna. From the south-west of Raipur and Nandgaon we follow the language southwards, through the north-west of Kanker and the east of Chanda into Bastar, where it is spoken in the north, and also farther to the south, where it meets with Telugu. Still farther to the south we find Gondi dialects in Vizagapatam and Godavari. and in the adjoining districts of Hyderabad, from Khamamet in the south-east to Sirpur Tandur in the north-west.

Gōṇḍī has no well-defined linguistic boundaries, the speakers being almost everywhere scattered among people employing various other languages. In the north it meets with Eastern and Western Hindī and Rājasthānī, to the west we find Marāṭhī, to the south Telugu, and to the east Telugu, Oṛiyā, Halabī, and Chhattīsgaṛhī.

The Göndī language does not differ much in the various districts. I have already mentioned that the so-called Mariā, Gaṭṭu, and Kōi do not differ so much from ordinary Gōndī that they should be classed as separate dialects, although the southernmost form of Kōi is a very distinct form of speech. Several other dialects are mentioned in the various Gazetteers and Census Reports. Such is the so-called Bhōi which has been returned from Saugor. The Gōnds of Saugor are known as Bhōi Gōnds, and the 2,400 speakers of Gōndī which were returned from the district for the purposes of this Survey should therefore be expected to speak the so-called Bhōi. No specimens have, however, been obtainable, and at the last Census only three speakers of Gōndī have been returned from Saugor. The so-called Bhōi must therefore be considered as extinct. Similar is the case of the so-called Ladhādī of Amraoti. The specimens forwarded from the district show

that the dialect has ceased to be a Dravidian form of speech, and it will, therefore, be dealt with under Semi-Dravidian languages below. Kōlāmī and Naikī, on the other hand, which have hitherto been considered as dialects of Gōndī, differ so much that they must be separated as a different language.

There thus only remains one real dialect of Gōṇḍī, the so-called Parjī spoken in the Bastar State. The Gōṇḍī specimens forwarded from that State are all far from satisfactory, and it has not, therefore, been possible to give a full account of Parjī. Compare pp. 554 and ff. below.

The number of speakers of Göndī is continuously decreasing. The estimates made for the purposes of this Survey refer only to Northern India, and the totals for Hyderabad and the Madras Presidency have therefore been taken from the reports of the Census of 1891. The bulk of speakers is found in the Central Provinces and in Berar. The returns of the last Census of 1901 show a small increase in the number of speakers in Berar, while the total for the Central Provinces is more than 200,000 less than the estimates. The tables which follow show the estimated number of speakers in the Central Provinces and Berar compared with the returns of the Census of 1901.

No			0-24 - 2010-	Who	ere spok	en.						Estimated number.	Census, 1901
Saugor												2,400	3
Damoh												1,200	377
Jabalpur												24,130	5,422
Mandla												89,187	78,681
Seoni												146,000	102,747
Narsinghp	ur	•										800	383
Hoshangab	ad							,				41,550	27,740
Nimar						•						2,200	1,693
Betul												94,000	81,619
Chhindwa	ra											123,100	104,168
Wardha												40,450	37,880
Nagpur	•								•			44,300	41,218
Chanda	٠											96,500	75,146
Bhandara					٠.							87,350	55,705
Balaghat	•	•									٠.	76,300	54,168
Raipur	•							•				27,800	7,784
Bilaspur	•											8,450	2,119
Sambalpur	٠.												232
Bastar	•	•	•				•					60,660	89,763
								Car	ried o	ver	٠.	966,377	766,848

- ;				Wher	e spol	ken.				 ز		:	.:	Estin	nated number.	Census, 1901.	. ,
-		1						Bı	ougl	ht fo	rwai	rd	٠.		966,377	766,848	_
Makrai	•		•	•												849	•
Kanker						٠.		. '			٠		٠.		39,000	37,399	.)
Nandgaon				٠.		٠.	٠	•					٠.	٠.	5,000	1,413	
Khairagarh						٠.				٠.	9		٠.	,	21,690	1,141)
Kawardha	•		•	٠.				• ,		٠.			٠.		· ·	66	
Sakti										٠.	,		٠.	٠.	· ·	1	
Raigarh																33	
Sarangarh															963	855	
Rairakhol																11	,
Sonpur						٠.	٠.							. 55		2	
Patna				•	٠.										130	4	
Kalahandi	٠	•												3	,	16	,
						Тот	AL	CENT	RAL	Prov	INC	ES	٠.		1,033,160	808,638	

It will be seen that there is a decrease in all districts with the exception of Bastar, where the old estimates must have been too low.

If we turn to Berar we find the returns as follows:-

				Whe	re spoke	en.					Estimated number.	Census, 1901.	
Amraoti												12,000	19,022
Akola						•						1,142	2,208
Ellichpur			•									4,427	6,148
Buldana		·											71
\mathbf{Wun}						٠.	٠.	•	٠.	٠.		53,000	55,495
Basim	٠	٠	٠		٠.	٠.	٠.	٠.	٠.	<i>:</i> .	٠	450	273
								Тота	ь Вев	RAR '		71,019	83,217

As will be seen from the table, there is an increase in all districts, and in addition thereto, 71 speakers were in 1901 returned from Buldana.

In Central India Göndī was reported to be spoken by 150 individuals in Bhopal. At the Census of 1901, 20,531 speakers of Göndī were returned from Central India, 20,268 of whom were found in Bhopal. It seems, however, probable that many of the individuals in question did not in reality speak Göndī.

It will thus be seen that, generally speaking, the number of speakers of Gondi in Northern India is decreasing.

The number of speakers in those districts where Gondi is spoken as a vernacular was according to local estimates and the Census reports of 1891 and 1901, as follows:—

					5			Estimated number.	Census, 1901
Central Provinces			• .					1,033,160	808,638
Berar								71,019	83,217
Central India .								150	20,531
Hyderabad								36,157	59,669
Madras Presidency	•	•	•	٠	•	• ,		6,694	4,240
28					То	TAL		1,147,180	976,295
					10	Tab	•	1,127,100	310,233

To this total must be added the figures for the so-called Gattu, Kōi, and Maṛiā. They are as follows:—

Gattu was returned as spoken by 1,680 individuals in Chanda and 353 in the Madras Presidency, *i.e.*, by a total of 2,033. The corresponding figures in the Census of 1901 were 5,494, of whom 5,483 were returned from Chanda.

Kōi was returned as spoken by 51,127 individuals, viz. 10,455 in Chanda, 4,169 in Bastar, and 36,503 in the Madras Presidency. In 1901, 70,842 speakers were returned, viz. 8,144 in Chanda, 46,803 in the Madras Presidency, and 15,895 in Hyderabad.

Mariā was returned as the language of 104,340 individuals, of whom 10,000 were returned from Chhindwara, 31,500 from Chanda, and 62,840 from Bastar. The corresponding total in the last Census of 1901 was 59,876, viz. 9,655 in Chanda, 50,091 in Bastar, 3 in Raigarh, and 127 in Assam.

The so-called Mariās of Chhindwara are ordinary Gōṇḍs, and they have now been reported to speak the usual Gōṇḍī of the district.

We thus arrive at the following total for Gondi spoken as a vernacular :-

										Estimated number.	Census, 1901.
So-called Gondi						•				1,147,180	976,295
So-called Gațțu			•	•		•				2,033	5,494
So-called Kōi		•		٠						51,127	70,842
So-called Maria	•		.•	•	•		•		•	104,340	59,876
ž.											
							To	TAL	•	1,304,680	1,112,507

Outside its proper territory Gōṇḍī was only returned for the purposes of this Survey from Angul and Khondmals, where it was spoken by 123 immigrants. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 227. In 1901, Gōṇḍī was returned as spoken

by small numbers from the following districts outside the territory where it is spoken as a vernacular:—

Andamans and Nicob	ars	•	•		•					1
Assam		•	•							1,989
Bengal Presidency							•.			240
Bombay Presidency				•						401
Rajputana			•							. 3
									,	
							T_0	TAL		2,634

We thus arrive at the following total:-

							Estimated number.	Census, 1901
Gōṇḍī spoken at home .							1,304,680	1,112,507
Gōṇḍi spoken abroad	•	•		٠,			123	2,634
					То	ТАЬ	1,304,803	1,115,141

If we add the speakers of Parjī in Bastar we arrive at the following grand total for Gondī and its dialects:—

		•					Estimated number.	Census, 1901
Gōṇḍī proper							1,304,803	1,115,141
Parjī		. •	•			•	17,387	8,833
					To	TAL	1,322,190	1,123,974

Göndi is not a literary language. There are, however, several Göndi songs current, and some of them have been printed in the work by the Rev. S. Hislop mentioned under Authorities below. The Gospels and the book of Genesis have been translated into the language. In this translation the Dēvanāgarī alphabet has been used. The Telugu character, which is much better suited to the language, has been employed in a translation of the Gospel of St. Luke into the so-called Köi dialect of the Madras Presidency.

I am not aware of any old mention of the language of the Gōṇḍs. The authorities dealing with Gōṇḍī which I have come across are as follows:—

Vocabulary of Goand and Cole Words. From Dr. Voysey's MSS. Ellichpur, 16th December 1821.

Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xiii, Part i, 1844, pp. 19 and ff.

ELLIOTT [ELLIOT], W.,—Observations on the Language of the Goands, and the identity of many of its terms with words now in use in the Telugu, Tamil and Canarese. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part ii, 1847, pp. 1140 and ff.

Manger [i.e. Maugee], O.,—Specimen of the Language of the Goonds as spoken in the District of Seonee, Chuparah; comprising a Vocabulary, Grammar, etc. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part i, 1847, pp. 286 and ff.

Hodgson, B. H.,—The Aborigines of Central India. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvii. Part ii. 1848, pp. 550 and ff., and reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. ii, London, 1880; pp. 99 and ff. Contains a Göndi Vocabulary.

Driberg, Rev. J. G., and Rev. H. J. Harrison,—Narrative of a second visit to the Gonds of the Nurbudda Territory with a Grammar and Vocabulary of their Language. Calcutta, 1849.

Weigle, H. G.,—Aus einem Briefe. Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. vii, 1853, p. 409.

Papers relating to the Dependency of Bustar. Selections from the Records of the Government of India, Foreign Department. No. xxxix. Calcutta, 1863, pp. 39 and ff., 47 ff., 91 ff. Refers to the so-called Maria.

HISLOP, REV. STEPHEN,—Papers relating to the Aboriginal Tribes of the Central Provinces. Edited, with notes and preface, by R. Temple. [Nagpore] 1866. Account of the Gönds. Part I, pp. 3 and ff.; vocabularies, Part II, pp. 1 and ff.; Gond songs, from Nagpur, Part III, pp. 1 and ff.

[LYALL, SIR A. J.,]—Report of the Ethnological Committee on papers laid before them and upon Examination of Specimens of Aboriginal Tribes brought to the Jubbulpore Exhibition, 1866-67. Nagpore, 1868. Parts ii and iii.

DAWSON, REV. JAMES,—Gondi Words and Phrases, Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Vol. xxxix, Part i, 1870, pp. 108 and ff.

Additional Gondi Vocabulary. Ibidem, pp. 172 and ff. Refers to the Gondi of Chhindwara.

Scanlan, C.,—Notes on the Gonds met with in the Satphura Hills, Central Provinces. Indian Antiquary, Vol. i, 1872, pp. 54 and ff.

RAMSAY, W.,-Gonds and Kurkus. Ibidem, pp. 128 and f.

Campbell, Sir George, -Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874, pp. 126 and ff.

CAIN, REV. J.,—The Bhadrachellam and Rakapalli Taluqas. Indian Antiquary. Vol. viii, 1879, pp. 33 and ff. (a Kōi vocabulary); Vol. x, 1881, pp. 259 and ff. (a Kōi grammar).

The Koi, a Southern Tribe of the Gond. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, Vol. xiii, 1881, pp. 410 and ff.

Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency. Vol. ii, Madras, 1885. Contains a Göndi vocabulary on pp. 198 and ff.

WILLIAMSON, REV. H., -Gond Grammar and Vocabulary. London, 1890.

HAIG, CAPTAIN WOLSELEY,—A Comparative Vocabulary of the Gondi and Kolomi Languages. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. 1xvi, P. i, 1897, pp. 185 and ff.

Göndī is not a written language. The Dēvanāgarī, the Telugu, and the Roman alphabets have all been used in printing versions of parts of the Scriptures in the various dialects of Göndī.

Pronunciation.—It is often impossible to decide when e and o are short and when long. The long and short sounds are only distinguished in the version of the Gospel of St. Luke in the dialects of the Kōis of the Madras Presidency.

An h is in many districts prefixed to the demonstrative pronouns. Thus we find $h\bar{o}r$, that, in Raipur, Khairagarh, Bhandara, Nagpur, Wun, and Akola.

An r is often cerebralised. Thus we find forms such as $var\bar{a}$ for $var\bar{a}$, come, in Khairagarh, Bhandara, and Nagpur. The cerebralisation of r is especially common in the plural forms of pronouns and verbs. Thus, $\bar{o}rk$, they; $matt\bar{o}ram$, we were, etc. Such forms are used in Sarangarh, Raipur, Khairagarh, Nandgaon, Bhandara, Balaghat, Nagpur, Seoni, Betul, and Akola. In the northernmost dialects and in the south, on the other hand, the dental r is used instead.

L is used instead of r in the singular of the demonstrative pronoun and in the third person singular of verbal forms in Hoshangabad and Betul. Thus, $v\bar{o}l$ $\bar{a}ndul$, he is. It is possible that we have not here to do with an instance of interchange between r and l, for the l can also be explained as representing an old n. Compare Pronouns, below.

Initial r becomes l in words such as $l\bar{o}n$, instead of $r\bar{o}n$, house, in Kanker, Bastar, and Chanda.

Initial s often becomes h in Kanker and Bastar; thus, hīm for sīm, give.

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The palatals are pronounced as in Sanskrit and Hindī. In the Kōi dialect of the Madras Presidency, however, ch and j are pronounced as ts and dz respectively, when not followed by i or e, as is also the case in Telugu and Marāthī.

Nouns.—There are two genders, the masculine and the neuter. The former is used for men and gods, while all other nouns are neuter. Gōṇḍī here differs from all other Dravidian languages with the exception of Kui, not only from Tamil and Kanarese, which have a separate feminine gender, but also from Telugu. That latter language agrees with Gōṇḍī in the singular, but uses the masculine and not the neuter form to denote the plural of nouns which denote women and goddesses.

Number.—The usual suffixes of the plural are k and ng; thus, $k\bar{a}l - k$, feet; $matt\bar{a}-ng$, mountains. Compare Kui $g\bar{a}$ and $sk\bar{a}$; Koraya (a dialect of Tamil) nga.

When a word ends in r preceded by a long vowel the final r is often changed to h, thus, $mi\bar{a}r$, daughter; $mi\bar{a}hk$, daughters. Words ending in $i\tilde{n}j$ change that termination to sk in the plural, thus, $viri\tilde{n}j$, finger, plural virsk.

Some words ending in a long vowel add hk in the plural and shorten the preceding vowel; thus, $m\bar{a}yj\bar{u}$, wife; $m\bar{a}yjuhk$, wives. The usual suffix in words ending in a long vowel is, however, ng, thus, $pitt\bar{e}-ng$, birds.

Several nouns form an irregular plural. Thus, allī, a rat, alk, rats; marrī, son, plur. mark; sarrī, road, plur. sark; kallē, thief, plur. kallērk; purī, insect, plur. purk; sirī, parrot, plur. sirk; dāū, brother, plur. dāulk; māmā, father-in-law, plur. māmāl; ār, woman, plur. ask.

Kallē-rk, thieves, seems to be a double plural, like the Tamil avargal, Telugu vāralu, they. Kallērk probably goes back to an older form kallēr which contains a plural suffix r corresponding to Tamil ar. The same suffix also occurs in words such as $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}l$ - $\bar{o}r$, fathers, and was probably originally used as the plural suffix of rational nouns. Such nouns in all connected languages have the same termination as the personal pronoun of the third person. Compare Tamil avan, he; avar, they; manidan, a man; manidar, men. The corresponding pronoun in Göndī is δr , he; $\delta r k$, they. δr is, however, by origin a plural form, which has become used in the singular, just as the corresponding plural pronoun in connected languages is very commonly used as an honorific singular. The old singular form must have been $\bar{o}n$. It is still preserved in the form $\bar{o}ndu$ in the so-called Kōi of Bastar and the Madras Presidency, and probably also in the form $v\bar{o}l$, he, in Hoshangabad and Betul. Compare Pronouns and Verbs below. The form ork is thus a double plural and must be compared with avargal, they, in Tamil. Forms such as dādālōr, fathers, are now very uncommon in Gondi, and corresponding forms such as tammur, a brother, are used in the singular, and a second suffix k is added in the plural. Thus, tammurk, brothers. On the other hand, the suffix or is occasionally also used to form the plural of irrational nouns. Thus Bishop Caldwell mentions kāvālōr, crows.

Case.—The declension of nouns shows that the distinction of the two genders in Göndī is a late development of the language and presupposes a state of affairs which more closely corresponded to that prevailing in other connected languages, where there are two genders, one for rational and the other for irrational beings. We see this in the way in which the singular noun is changed before adding the case suffixes. We can distinguish two declensions. In the first an n is added to the base before the case suffixes, in the second a t is inserted. Thus, tammur, a brother, oblique base tammun, but chhauvā, a child, oblique base chhauvāt. Compare Tamil manidan, a man, oblique base manidan; but maram, a tree, oblique base maratt. Similar forms also occur in Kanarese, and also in the so-called irregular nouns in Telugu.

The second declension in Göndi now comprises several nouns denoting rational beings and is, broadly speaking, the regular one. The final consonant is often combined with the following t into one sound. Thus, $r\bar{o}t$ is the oblique base of $r\bar{o}n$, a house; $d\bar{o}ngut$ of $d\bar{o}ngur$, jungle. Final r plus t sometimes become t, and l plus t, d, and so on. Thus, $n\bar{a}r$, village, oblique $n\bar{a}t$ (and $n\bar{a}ten$); $n\bar{e}l$, field, oblique $n\bar{e}d$.

The first declension comprises masculine nouns ending in *ur* such as *tammur*, brother. The oblique form is *tammun*, which is really the old singular base, *tammur* being by origin a plural form. In the same way are inflected nouns ending in $\bar{a}l$, such as $m\bar{a}rs\bar{a}l$, a man, oblique $m\bar{a}rs\bar{a}n$, and several other nouns such as $marr\bar{\imath}$, son, oblique $marr\bar{\imath}n$; $kall\bar{e}$, thief, oblique $kall\bar{e}n$; $p\bar{e}rg\bar{\imath}$, girl, oblique $p\bar{e}rg\bar{\imath}n$; $m\bar{a}yj\bar{u}$, wife, oblique $m\bar{a}yj\bar{u}n$.

The oblique plural form is identical with the base when the plural suffix $\bar{o}r$ is used. After k and $\dot{n}g$ an n is added before which the final $\dot{n}g$ is usually dropped. Compare Kui. The suffix un of the dative and accusative is added immediately to the suffix k.

Gōṇḍī uses the same form for the dative and the accusative. In Chanda and Bastar, however, the two cases are distinguished, as is also the case in other Dravidian languages. The confusion in other Gōṇḍī dialects is therefore probably due to the influence of the neighbouring Aryan languages.

The usual suffix of the dative-accusative is un corresponding to Kanarese nnu, Telugu nu and ni. Thus, chhauvātun, to the child. In the first declension this case is identical with the oblique base; thus, tammun, to a brother. In the plural we find forms such as tammurk-un, to the brothers; chhauvānun, to the children. From plural forms such as chhauvāng, children, we also find dative-accusatives such as chhauvān and chhauvānung.

The suffix un is the old accusative suffix. We sometimes also find the old dative suffix k. Thus, $m\bar{a}rs\bar{a}nk$, to the man; tammurkunk, to the brothers; $chhauv\bar{a}ngk$, to the children. All these forms are used promiseuously.

Other case suffixes are, ablative $\bar{a}l$ and $s\bar{e}$; genitive $\bar{o}r$, \bar{a} ; locative e; and vocative $n\bar{i}$, plural $n\bar{i}t$. Thus, $tammun\bar{a}l$ or $tammun-s\bar{e}$, from the brother; $tammun-\bar{o}r$, of the brother; $n\bar{e}d-e$, in the field.

The ablative suffix $\bar{a}l$ is the same as the Tamil suffix of the instrumental; $s\bar{e}$ is Aryan. The vocative plural is formed from the corresponding singular by adding t; thus, $tammun\bar{t}t$, O brothers.

The genitive suffix is inflected so as to agree with the qualified noun. Before masculine nouns it ends in $\bar{o}r$, plural $\bar{o}rk$, before other nouns in \bar{a} , plural $\bar{a}ng$. Thus, $tammun\bar{a}\ l\bar{o}n$, the brother's house; $m\bar{a}rs\bar{a}n\bar{o}rk\ d\bar{a}ulk$, the man's brothers. Similar forms are also found in Kaikādī and Kōlāmī.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are not inflected. Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative. Thus, ōnōr tammur ōnā selārt-āl dhāngāl mandānur, his brother his sister-from high will-be, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The Gondi forms are used all over the Gondi area so far as seven. For 'eight' and following numbers Aryan loanwords are commonly used in Mandla and the neighbourhood. More to the south, for instance in Balaghat, Seoni, Chhindwara, Betul, and Amraoti, we find armur, eight; unmāk, nine; pad, ten, etc.

The numeral $und\bar{\imath}$, one, corresponds to Kanarese ondu, Tamil ondru. Both these languages have also a masculine form oru, one, and the corresponding varru is also used in Gondi with the meaning 'some one.' In Mandla we find $und\bar{\imath}$ instead of $und\bar{\imath}$.

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Rand, two, is the form usual in most Dravidian languages. In the south, in Kanker and Bastar, we also find *irur*, corresponding to Tamil *iruvar*, Kanarese *ir*. *Irul* also occurs in Hoshangabad.

 $M\bar{u}nd$, three, corresponds to Tamil $m\bar{u}ndru$, Telugu $m\bar{u}du$; $n\bar{a}lung$, four, to Tamil and Kanarese $n\bar{a}lu$, Telugu $n\bar{a}lugu$.

Saiyūng, five, and sārūng, six, begin with s in the same way as Kui singi, five, and sajgi, six. Compare Kanarese eidu, ei, Telugu eidu, five; Kanarese, Telugu, Tamil āru, six.

Yērūng, seven, corresponds to Tamil ēru, Kanarese ēļu, Telugu ēḍu, seven.

Pronouns.—'I' is nannā and annā. The latter form is most used in the west, for example in Narsinghpur, Hoshangabad, Chhindwara, Betul, and Amraoti. But it also occurs in Nagpur and even in Patna. Compare Kanarese ān, nānu, nā. The corresponding plural is mammāt, ammāt, ammōt, and similar forms. The final t is a plural particle, and the real pronoun is mammā or ammā corresponding to Old Kanarese ām, Telugu ēmu, mēmu.

The forms mammāṭ and ammāṭ are local varieties of the same base. Mammāṭ is the usual form in Mandla. In Seoni we find amōṭ and mamēṭ. In the other districts ammōṭ or similar forms are used. The same form is used whether the person addressed is included or not. In this respect Gōṇḍī agrees with Kanarese. In the south, however, in the so-called Kōi, we find the inclusive plural distinguished from the exclusive one, just as is the case in other Dravidian languages. Thus, mannaḍa, we, inclusive; mamma, we, exclusive.

'Thou' is $imm\bar{a}$ or $imm\bar{e}$, plural $imm\bar{a}t$. In Chanda we also find $nim\bar{e}$, thou; $nim\bar{e}t$, you; and in the so-called Kōi we find the Telugu form $m\bar{r}u$, you.

The form $imm\bar{a}$ is originally a plural employed as an honorific singular and must be compared with Malayāļām and Kanarese $n\bar{\imath}m$. Compare also Kui $\bar{\imath}mu$, thou.

The pronoun $\bar{o}r$, he, is originally a plural form corresponding to Tamil and Malayāļām avar, Kanarese avaru, they. The old singular form was $\bar{o}n$, which is used as the oblique base, and also as the base of many verbal forms. The Kōi form $\bar{o}ndu$, he, is the old singular. Compare Kui $\bar{e}a\tilde{n}ju$, Telugu $v\bar{a}du$, he.

The form $\bar{o}r$ is also used as a plural meaning 'they.' In this sense, however, a new plural suffix k is commonly added; thus, $\bar{o}rk$, they. Compare Tamil avargal, they. Regarding forms such as $\bar{o}rk$, they; $v\bar{o}l$, he, etc., see Pronunciation above.

The corresponding neuter form is ad, she, it, genitive addēnā, avēnā, tānā; plural aū, genitive avēhk-nā. Compare Tamil adu, it, gen. adin, plur. avei-gal; Kanarese adu, it, genitive adara, plural avu. Forms such as dānā, her; dānku, to her, occur in Chanda and Bastar. Compare Telugu.

The pronouns $\bar{e}r$, this, neuter id; $b\bar{o}r$, who? neuter bad, are inflected like $\bar{o}r$. The latter pronoun, however, is also inflected in person so as to agree with the subject. Thus if we want to say 'who are you?' we must say $imm\bar{a}$ $b\bar{o}n\bar{i}$ (not $b\bar{o}r$) $\bar{a}nd\bar{i}$. So also $am\bar{o}t$ $b\bar{o}ram$ $\bar{a}nd\bar{o}m$, who are we? and so on.

The nominative of the interrogative pronoun can therefore be given as follows:-

				•	-		Singular.	Plural.
1	pers.						$b\bar{o}n\bar{a}$	$b\bar{o}ram.$
2	pers.						$b\bar{o}n\bar{\imath}$	borīt.
3	pers. mas	c.					$b\bar{o}r$	$b\bar{o}r(k)$.
3	pers. neu	t.	•				bad	$baar{u}$.

When the question concerns females or irrational beings we also find forms such as first person badēnā, plural bavēnā; second person badēnā, plural bavēnā.

The pronoun bor is usually compared with Tamil yāvan, Kanarese yāvaru. It is, moreover, used as a relative pronoun, though we also find relative sentences evaded by the use of participles or independent sentences in the common Dravidian way.

Other interrogative pronouns are $batt\bar{\imath}$, $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}ng$, and $b\bar{a}l$, what? $Batt\bar{\imath}$ is an interrogative adjective; $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}ng$ is used as an interrogative particle, and $b\bar{a}l$ is an accusative and used as the object of transitive verbs.

Verbs.—The Göndi verb is apparently much richer in forms than is the case in other Dravidian languages, and this richness has been pointed out as characteristic of Göndi. Thus Bishop Caldwell remarks of the language:—

'It has a passive voice: in addition to the indicative and the imperative moods, it possesses a potential: in the indicative mood, where Tamil has only three tenses, it has a present, an imperfect definite, an indefinite past, a perfect, a conditional, and a future, each of which is regularly inflected: like the other idioms, it has a causal verb, but it stands alone in having also an inceptive. In these particulars the Gond grammar has acquired a development peculiar to itself, perhaps in some degree through the influence of the highly inflected Santāl, its Kölarian neighbour to the northward.'

The elaborate conjugational system of Gondi is, however, an illusion, and the language in this respect entirely agrees with other Dravidian tongues.

The so-called passive in Göndī does not seem to be in common use. Forms such as $j\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{a}y\bar{a}t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, and $j\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$ hatt $\bar{a}n$, I am struck, lit. having struck I-become, having struck I-went, are apparently only imitations of Aryan constructions. They do not occur in the materials at my disposal. $J\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{a}y\bar{a}t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, however, corresponds to Tamil forms such as $k\bar{o}vil$ kattī $\bar{a}yirru$, the temple having-built became, the temple is built.

The so-called potential mood is not a separate form of the verb, but is arrived at in the same way as in other Drawidian languages by adding an auxiliary verb to the verbal noun. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$ par $\bar{\imath}t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I can do. Here $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$ is simply the verbal noun.

The so-called inceptive is formed in a similar way. $K\bar{\imath}\bar{a}l\bar{a}t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I begin to do, is no proper tense, but either simply $l\bar{a}t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I begin, added to the verbal noun, or $\bar{a}t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I become, added to the dative of that noun.

The various tenses of the indicative mood, to which Bishop Caldwell draws attention, are formed as follows from the verb $k\bar{\imath}a-l\bar{e}$, to do:—

			Present.		Imperfect.		Indefinite past.		Perfect.		Future.		Conditional.	
Sing.	1.			kīātōnā		kīndān		kīēnā		kītān	_	kīākā		kīākā.
	2 .			kīātōnī		$k\bar{\imath}nd\bar{\imath}$		kīēnī		kītī		kīākī		kīākī.
	3 m.		٠.	$k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}t\bar{o}r$		kīndur		kīēr		kētur		kīānur		kīr.
	3 f. &	1		kīātā		$k\bar{\imath}nd(u)$		kīvār		kīt(u)		kīār		kī.
Plar.	.1 .,			kīātöram		kīndōm		kīēram		kītōm		kīākōm		kīākōm.
	2.			kīātörīţ		kīndīŗ	٠.	kīērīţ		kītīŗ		kīākīŗ		kīākīŗ.
	3 т.			ktātork		kīndurk		kīērk		kīturk		kīānurk		kīrk.
	3 f. & n			kīātāng		kīndung		kīvā i g		kītung		kīānung		kīng.

It will be seen that the so-called conditional is simply a modification of the future from which it only differs in the third person. The r in the third person masculine $k\bar{\imath}r$

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perhaps corresponds to the conditional particle re in Kanarese. The other forms of the third person have then followed the analogy of other tenses. They seem to be very seldom used, and they do not form an essential feature of the language.

With regard to the other tenses, they can be divided into two classes. The first comprises the present and the indefinite past, the second the imperfect, the perfect, and the future.

The two classes use different personal terminations, and it will be seen that those added in the first class closely correspond to the terminations of the interrogative pronoun. This fact enables us to understand the real nature of such tenses.

In all Dravidian languages, nouns of agency can be formed from the various participles. Compare, for example, Kanarese $m\bar{a}duv$ -avanu, a man who makes; $m\bar{a}did$ -avanu, a man who has made. In Gōṇḍī there are three different verbal participles, a present, a past, and an indefinite. Thus, $k\bar{i}at\bar{a}$, doing; $k\bar{i}t\bar{a}$, done, having done; $k\bar{i}e$, doing (indefinite). Verbal nouns of agency are formed from all those participles; thus, $k\bar{i}at\bar{o}r$, a doer; $k\bar{i}t\bar{a}r$, one who has done; $k\bar{i}e\bar{r}r$, one who does, or, who will do. Such verbal nouns are regularly inflected; and Bishop Caldwell has long ago pointed out that such forms may be substituted for the ordinary tenses. This is exactly what has been done in Gōṇḍī, and the tenses of the first class are simply nouns of agency inflected in the same way as in other connected languages.

The conjugational system in Gondi therefore agrees with that occurring in other Dravidian forms of speech, and the rich variety of different forms is only apparent.

On the other hand, there are, as in other connected languages, several compound tenses. The imperfect $k\bar{\imath}nd\bar{a}n$, I did, can be considered as such a form, consisting of the indefinite participle $k\bar{\imath}\bar{e}$, and $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}n$, I was. Another imperfect is formed by adding $matt\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I was, to the indefinite participle; thus, $k\bar{\imath}\bar{e}$ $matt\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I was doing.

A pluperfect is formed in the same way from the conjunctive participle; thus, $k\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$ mattonā, I had done. The abbreviated form $k\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$ is used as an ordinary past meaning 'I did.'

The regular past tense $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}n$, I did, is formed by adding the same suffix t which occurs in the form tt in Tamil and d in Kanarese. We also find the conjunctive participle used alone as in Malayalam. Thus, $m\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$, he was, in Sarangarh and Chanda.

The suffix of the future is k as in old Tamil, and Malayālām. Compare Göndī $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ or $k\bar{e}k\bar{a}$, I shall do; $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}k\bar{o}m$ or $k\bar{e}k\bar{o}m$, we shall do; with Old Tamil $\hat{s}eygu$, I shall do; $\hat{s}eygum$, we shall do.

In the formation of tenses, therefore, Göndi agrees with Old Tamil and Malayāļām and not with Telugu.

The personal terminations used in the inflexion of verbs in Gondi are as follows:-

Sing. 1.	$\bar{a}(n)$	Plur. 1.	$\bar{o}m$.
2.	ī	2.	īt, īr.
3 m.	(u)r	3 m.	r(k).
3 fem. & neut.	_	3 fem. & neut.	na.

The third person singular feminine and neuter has no separate termination. It will be seen from the table on p. 482, that \bar{a} , $\bar{a}r$, and u, may be added. Instead of $\bar{a}r$ we also find $\bar{a}l$; thus, $mand\bar{a}l$, it is, in Mandla. This $\bar{a}l$ is probably the old feminine termination. Compare Tamil aval, Kanarese avalu, she. $\bar{A}r$ is perhaps derived from $\bar{a}l$.

Compare the termination \bar{a} of the genitive before neuter and feminine words, which form also occurs as $\bar{a}l$.

The plural suffixes of the third person are formed from the singular suffixes by adding the usual plural termination.

The suffix $\bar{a}(n)$ of the first person singular and the corresponding $\bar{o}m$, am, of the plural must be compared with $\bar{a}n$, $\bar{o}m$, respectively, in Old Malayālām. Compare also $\bar{e}n$, $\bar{o}m$ in Tamil.

The $\bar{\imath}$ of the second person singular is also used in Tamil and Kanarese. In the plural r is added. Compare $\bar{\imath}r$ in Tamil and iri in Kanarese. In the tenses of the first class the second person plural is formed from the corresponding singular by adding t. This t seems to be a plural suffix. Compare $imm\bar{a}t$, you, $mamm\bar{a}t$, we, and forms such as $tind\bar{a}k\bar{a}t$, let us eat, in the Seoni specimen.

The termination r of the third person singular is originally a plural suffix. Compare Pronouns, above. The plural suffix -rk is a double form and corresponds to Tamil, -argal.

The imperative is identical with the base, and t is added in the plural. Thus, $udd\bar{a}$, sit; $nill\bar{a}$, stand; $var\bar{a}t$, come ye; tin, eat; han, go. In verbs such as $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, to do; $s\bar{\imath}\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, to give; $j\bar{\imath}\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, to strike, an m is usually added. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}m$, plural $k\bar{\imath}mt$, do. Compare the honorific suffix um in Tamil and mu in Telugu and Kui. Forms such as $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$, however, also occur. $K\bar{\imath}sim$, do, and similar forms are probably compounds, sim meaning 'give.'

The verbal noun ends in \bar{a} ; thus, $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$, to do. The genitive $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ is used in the same way. The infinitive of purpose ends in $\bar{a}l\bar{e}$; thus, $k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}l\bar{e}$, in order to do. Compare the suffixes al in Tamil and alu, in Kanarese.

The verbal participles have already been mentioned. The present participle corresponds to forms such as Kanarese bāluta, living; Telugu kottutu, striking. The past participle is formed as in Kanarese. Compare Kanarese mādida, who has done. The indefinite participle Gōndī shares with Telugu.

These participles are not much used. They occasionally also occur in the function of relative participles.

The conjunctive participle is formed by adding $s\bar{s}$, $ch\bar{s}$ or $s\bar{s}$ -kun, $ch\bar{s}$ -kun; thus, $k\bar{s}s\bar{s}$ -kun, having done. Compare Telugu $ch\bar{e}s\bar{s}$, having done, and vulgar Tamil padichchu, having suffered. Kun is probably Aryan.

Other participles are kīsōre, doing, kītēkē, in the act of doing, etc.

The negative verb is formed in the same way as in connected languages by adding the personal terminations to the base without any tense suffixes. Thus the negative form of $k\bar{\imath}an\bar{a}$, to do, is:—

Sing.	1.		kīōn	Plur. 1.	$k\bar{\imath}\bar{o}m$.
	2.	-	$kar{e}var{\imath}$	2.	kēvīr.
	3 m.	*	kīōr	3 m.	kīōrk.
	3 fem. & neut.		$k\bar{i}\bar{o}$	3 fem & neut-	kāōġa

The particle hille, corresponding to Kanarese illa, Tamil illei, may be added; thus, hille sēvor, he gave not.

Hille is also combined with verbal nouns in order to form a negative verb, in the same way as in other connected languages. Thus, hille $k\bar{e}v\bar{a}k\bar{e}$, had not done; hille $k\bar{\iota}t\bar{a}$, did not. Such forms do not change for person and number.

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The negative imperative is formed by suffixing $m\bar{a}$, plural $m\bar{a}t$. Minne may be prefixed. Thus, (minne) $k\bar{e}m\bar{a}t$, do ye not do.

The preceding remarks will have shown that the position of Gondi within the Dravidian family may be defined as follows.

In some few points it has struck out independent lines of its own. Compare the confusion between the dative and accusative cases and the inflexion of the genitive so as to agree with the qualified noun. In all these points we must probably see the influence of Aryan vernaculars.

On the other hand, there are some points of analogy with Telugu. Thus, the distinction of the genders is analogous, though Gōṇḍī, in this respect, still more closely agrees with Kui. Some of the inflected forms of the personal pronouns are similar to those used in Telugu. Compare Gōṇḍī mīkun, Telugu mīku, to you. The indefinite participle Gōṇḍī shares with Telugu, and the conjunctive participle is similarly formed in both languages.

In most respects, however, Göndī agrees with Tamil and Kanarese, more especially with the older forms of these languages. Where these two differ between themselves, Göndī sometimes agrees with Tamil and sometimes with Kanarese. Compare the distinction of two declensions, the case terminations, and the personal pronouns. Note especially that Göndī like Kanarese has only one form of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person. Compare further the formation of verbal tenses, the personal terminations of verbs, the verbal noun, and the negative verb.

Göndī must therefore be derived from the same old dialect from which Tamil and Kanarese have developed, *i.e.*, from what Kumārila called the *Drāviḍa-bhāshā*, as opposed to the *Āndhra-bhāshā*, the parent of modern Telugu.

On the other hand, Gōṇḍī has come under the influence of Telugu, especially in the South, where the so-called Kōi dialect may be considered as a link between the two forms of speech. Much stronger is, however, the influence exercised by the neighbouring Aryan dialects. All forms of Gōṇḍī abound in Aryan words; Aryan speech is gradually supplanting the old Dravidian language of the Gōṇḍs, and it is probably only a question of time when Gōṇḍī shall have ceased to exist as an independent form of speech.

When the preceding remarks are borne in mind it is hoped that the short grammatical sketch which follows will enable the student to easily understand the Gōndī specimens. For further details the works mentioned under authorities above should be consulted. The ensuing sketch is, to a great extent, based on them, more especially on Mr. Williamson's grammar.

I.-NOUNS.-māṛsāl, a man ; tammur, a brother ; chhauvā, a child.

Nom.		Singular.			Plural.			
		mārsāl	tammur	chhauvā	māṛsālōr	tammurk	chhauvāṅg	
Voc.		māŗsānī	tammunī	chhauvānī	māṛsālōrīṭ	tammunīţ	chhauvānīţ	
AccDat.		māŗsān	tammun	chhauvātun	māṛsālōrun	tammurkun	chhauvān(ung	
Abl		mārsānāl, mārsān-sē	tammunāl, etc.	chhauvātāl, etc.	māṛsālōrāl, etc.	tammurknāl,	chhauvānāl, etc.	
Gen	\cdot	māṛsānōr,¹ -nā, etc.	tammunör, etc.	chhauvātēr, etc.	māṛsālōrōr, etc.	tammurknör, etc.	chhauvānār, etc.	
Loc		māṛsāne	tammune	chhauvāte	mārsālore	tammurkne	chhauvāne	

¹ The form ending in $\bar{o}r$, plural $\bar{o}rk$, is used before a masculine noun; the form ending in \bar{a} , plural $\bar{a}ng$, before a neuter word. Instead of \bar{a} we also find $\bar{a}l$.

II.-PRONOUNS.

				ı.	We.	Thou.	You.	
Nom.	Nom (n)annā		(m)ammāţ	immā	immāţ, immāŗ			
AccD	at.			nāk(un)	$m\bar{\alpha}k(un)$	nīk(un)	$m\bar{\imath}k(un)$	
Abl.	•	•	•	nā(-vā-)tāl, nāvāl, nā- sē.	$m\bar{a}(-v\bar{a}-)t\bar{a}l, m\bar{a}v\bar{a}l,$ etc.	$n\bar{\imath}(-v\bar{\alpha}-)t\bar{\alpha}\bar{l}$, $n\bar{\imath}v\bar{\alpha}l$, etc.	$m\bar{\imath}(-v\bar{\alpha}-)t\bar{\alpha}l$, $m\bar{\imath}v\bar{\alpha}l$, etc.	
Gen.		• •		nāvēr, nāvā, etc.	māvēr, māvā, etc.	nīvēr, nīvā, etc.	mīvār, mīvā, etc.	
Loc				nāve, nāvā-īvide	māve, etc.	nīve, etc.	mīve, etc.	
			1			THEY.		
				He.	She, it.	Masc.	Fem. and neut.	
Nom.				ōr	ad	$\bar{o}r(k)$	aū.	
AccD	at.			$\bar{o}n(k)$	tān, addēn, avēn	$\bar{o}r(k)un$	$avar{e}hkun$, $avar{e}n(k)$.	
Abl.				õnāl, õn-sē	tānāl, addēnāl, etc.	$\bar{o}r(kn)\bar{a}l$	$avar{e}(hk)nar{a}l.$	
Gen.				ōnōr, etc.	tānōr, addēnōr, etc.	$\bar{o}r(kn)\bar{o}r$, etc.	avē(hk)nōr, etc.	
Loc.				ōne, āvids	addēne, avēțe	$\delta r(kn)e$	$av\bar{e}(hk)ne.$	

Ēr, this, fem. n. id, plur. ērk, fem. and neut. $i\bar{u}$; $b\bar{o}r$, who? fem. and neut. bad, are inflected like $\bar{o}r$. $B\bar{o}r$ is also inflected in person when used in the nominative; thus masculine 1st person $b\bar{o}n\bar{a}$; 2nd $b\bar{o}n\bar{i}$; 3rd $b\bar{o}r$; plur. 1 $b\bar{o}ram$, 2 $b\bar{o}r\bar{i}t$, 3 $b\bar{o}rk$; feminine and neuter, 1 $bad\bar{e}n\bar{a}$, 2 $bad\bar{e}n\bar{i}$, 3 bad, plur. 1 $bav\bar{e}n\bar{a}$, 2 $bav\bar{e}n\bar{i}$, 3 $ba\bar{u}$. $B\bar{o}r$ forms the locative $bav\bar{e}t\bar{e}$ or $b\bar{a}vid\bar{e}$.

Eōrē, anyone, neut. badē; dat. bōnaī, neut. badēnē; gen. bōnōrē, bōnaī, neut. baddēnōrē.

TON GRAMMAR.

III .- VERBS .- Kīānā, to do.

Verbal Noun. - kīā, kīānā, kīālē; negative kēvākē.

Verbal participles.—Present, kīātā; Past, kītā; Indefinite, kīē.

Adverbial participle.—kīsōre; kītēkē.

Conjunctive participle.-kisi(-kun).

1	Present.	Indefinite.3	Past.	Future.	Negative.7	Imperative.	
Sing. 1 .	kīātōnā¹	kiēnā	kītān	kīākā 4	kīōn		
2 .	kīātōnī	kīēnī	kītī	kīākī ⁴	kēvī	kīm, kīsim, kīā ³ .	
3 m	$k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}t\bar{o}r$	kiër	kītur	kīānur ⁵	kīōr	1	
3 f. & n.	$k\bar{\imath}\bar{a}t\bar{a}$	$k\bar{\imath}v\bar{a}r$	$k\bar{\imath}t(u)$	kīār ⁶	kīō		
Plur. 1 .	kīātōram	kīēram	kītōm	kīākōm*	kīōm		
2 .	kīātōrīţ²	kīērīţ²	kītīŗ	kīākīŗ ⁴	kēvīŗ	kīmţ.	
3 m	kīātōrk	kīērk	kīturk	kīānurk ⁵	kīōrk		
3 f. & n.	$k \bar{\imath} \bar{a} t \bar{a} \dot{n} g$	kīvāng	kītung	kīānuṅg ⁵	kīōṅg		

¹ Also kīāltōnā, etc. ² Also kīātōrīṛ, etc. ³ Used as an imperfect indefinite and a conjunctive present. ⁴ Also kākā, etc. ⁵ Also kānur, etc. ⁶ Also kīāl. The future is also used as a conditional in which case the third person is kīṛ, neut: kī; plur. kīrk, neut. kīṅg. ¹ The negative verb is usually preceded by hille, halle. Those particles are also combined with verbal nouns and participles. Thus, hille kēvākē, had not done; hille kītā, did not do; hille kīūlē, hille kīnīl, will not do, for all persons and numbers. ⁶ Negative imperative (minne) kēmā, plur. kēmāt, don't do. Some verbs form their imperative differently. Verbs ending in ānā (not tānā) and tānā form their imperative in ā; those ending in htānā in hā; those ending in ndānā in n. Thus, askānā, to cut, imper. askā; uddīnā, to sit, uddā; tehtānā, to raise, tehā; handānā, to go, han. Note tachchum and tarā, bring (tattānā); vahchum, explain (vahtānā); varā, come (vāyānā).

Imperfect, kīndān, as kītān. Perfect, kītonā and kīsītōnā, as kīātōnā.

Auxiliary verbs. $-\bar{A}y\bar{a}n\bar{a}(m\bar{a}y\bar{a}n\bar{a},$ etc.), to be, to become; $mand\bar{a}n\bar{a},$ to be, to stay.

Verbal noun, āyānā; mandānā; negative āvākē, mannākē.

Conjunctive participle, āsī-kun, manjī-kun.

Present, āyātēnā, mandātēnā or mandēnā.

Indefinite, āyēnā, mannēnā.

Perfect, ātōnā, mattōnā.

Future, āyākā, mandākā.

Imperative, am, man; negative, ayima, manma.

Negative tense, āyōn, mannōn.

Other tenses and the inflexion in general is regular.

Causals.—Formed from the conjunctive participle by adding ahtānā; thus, jīsahtānā, to cause to strike; present jīsahtātōnā; perfect jīsahchītōnā; future jīsahkā, etc. The causative of nittānā, stand, is nillahtānā; tedānā, to rise, tehtānā; tindānā, to eat, tihtāna; undānā, to drink, uhtānā; handānā, to go, hanahtānā.

Potential, kīā-paritōnā, I can do ; past kīā partān ; future kīā parākā.

Inceptive, kīālātōnā, I begin to do, etc.

Passivo, kīsī-āyātōnā, I am made, etc.

Intensitive particle, ē, nē. An interrogative pronoun is made indefinite by alding ē; thus, bor-ō, anybody.

The Göndi of Mandla closely agrees with the preceding sketch. It is commonly called $P\bar{a}rs\bar{\imath}$ $G\bar{o}nd\bar{\imath}$, or $Chaur\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}$ $b\bar{o}l\bar{\imath}$, from Chaurasi, an estate of 84 villages within the area of which Göndi is everywhere spoken. It is also spoken to the north and west of the estate.

The specimen which follows has been forwarded from Mandla. It is, however, simply the corresponding passage of Mr. Williamson's translation of the Gospel of St. Luke, which was printed in Allahabad in 1895. No other specimen has been forwarded from Mandla, but a list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 648 and ff.

In the specimen we may note the frequent use of the indefinite participle in the formation of compound verbs from Aryan words. Compare $p\bar{u}chh\bar{e}-k\bar{i}tur$, he asked; hille $ch\bar{a}h\bar{e}-m\bar{a}y\bar{o}r$, he did not wish. Note also the frequent use of \dot{n} instead of final $\dot{n}g$; thus, $dhiy\bar{a}\dot{n}$, instead of $dhiy\bar{a}ng$, days.

In the list of Standard Words we may note forms such as $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}t\bar{a}l$, from the father; $miy\bar{a}rtun$, to the daughter; $k\tilde{u}v\bar{a}ta$, in the well; $m\bar{a}rs\bar{a}lk$, men; $t\bar{a}n$, him.

'I am' is andona and andan, plural andom. Note also mandal, it will be.

The past tense and the future are not given in full in the list. The missing forms have been supplied from other sources, and they have been given within parenthesis.

Note finally $j\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}n\ \bar{a}y\bar{e}n\bar{a}$, I should beat, which apparently contains a noun of agency $j\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}n$, one who has beaten.

[No. 44.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖNDÎ.

mark mattork. Ani ōrān-rōpāṭāl luhrāl Bōrē ādmīnōr rand Andtheir-midst-from the-younger A-certain man-of twosons were. jō tūs nāvā ٠ē dādā, dhante uddītā ad dādān kattur, whatsitsproperty-in portion my that said, father, to-father Tab apnō sampat tūsī-sītur. Valle dhiyan nākun sīm.' ōrun property dividing-gave. his-own Many days me-to give. Then he to-them ki chudur marrī sab bārāngē ikatthō kīsī hille āyōn whateveralltogether having-made the-younger notpassedthatson bitē-kīsōre tāksī-hattur, burō kāmte din apnō dēś ani agā lakk deed-in days there bad passing his-own a-far going-went, andcountry māhchī-sītur. Baske ōr sab bārāngē mäh-chītur aske dhan whateverhad-expended then wealth having-squandered-gave. When heallkangāl āyā-lātur. Ani akāl ōr ōr ad dēste barō artt ani to-be-began. Andhefelland he poor a-great famine that country-in hañjī mandānavārērknā ropatal undīnā igā ad dēśānōr near having-gone lived, inhabitants-of among-from one-of thatcountry-of mēh-tālē Ani röhtur. ōr apnō padding au. jō ōn nēlkne to-feed sent.Andhethoseswinewhohimhis-own fields-to apnō - pīr nihtālē chāhē-māndur. tindung chhīmīng-nāl bavēhkun paddīng his-own bellyto-fill wishing-was. swine ate husks-from which ōn. surat āt bōranī hille siyōn. Tab ani baddē ōn k Ani Then to-him sense came and to-him anything not gave. And anyone mandānurk jonknā sārī chākark or ittur, dādānōrk vallē -' nāvōr father's servants will-be whom-of bread he said, 'my many nannā Nannā techchhī karrū sāvitonā. pissātā, ani igā having-arisen I here of-hunger am-dying. Ι sufficient-is, and"ē indākā, dādā, nannā dādānā pōrĩ dākā ani ōn-sē apnō " O father, I. will-say, will-go and him-to my-own father-of near Nannā issur nīvor kītonā. biruddh nīvā munne pāp svargtā ani I again thyand thee before sin have-done. heaven-of against chākarknā ropātāl apnör marri ińch-ahtānā jog hille āyon; nākun servants-of among-from thy-own to-be-called fit: notme 80n am: banē-kīm.", dādānā muttis lēkā Ani techchhi apnō undīnā ōr having-arisen his-own father-of near make." one-of likeAnd he3 R

dāyā hūrsī ōn ōnōr dādāl lakka-ī mattor ki tāktur. Pē ōr compassion him having-seen his father that far-off was Butwent. chūmē-kītur. ōn lipţē-kīsī vichehhī-kun ōnā varēte ani kitur, having-embraced himkissed. on-the-neck running his and did, ani nīvā biruddh svargnā ٠ē nannā dādā, ōn-sē ittur. Marri thy againstandheaven-of father, Ι him-to said, The-son iñch-ahtānā jög hille marrī nannā issur nīvōr kītonā; pāp munne fitnot thy to-be-called again son have-done; in-presence sin'nahnal-sē nahnal dikrī chākarkun ittur, apnörk dādāl āyon. Pē clothes 'good-from goodservants-to said, his-own the-father am.' But muddā ani ōnā kaide pondsahār, anipasahchi ōn jhapnē a-ring and cause-to-put-on, and hishand-on himhaving-brought quickly ānand tindākam ani karsahār; ani mammāt sarpūhk kālkne rejoicings will-eat andandwe shoes cause-to-put-on; feet-on pistor; mattor, issur sāsī Bārī-ki nāvor marrī ēr kēkam. came-alive; again having-died was, son Because this mywill-make. kiyā-lāturk. ōrk ānand purtor.' Ani mattor, issur rachchhī to-make-began. was-found.' merriment And they again having-been-lost was, muttis rōtā vāsore nēde mattor. Ani jab ōr jēthō marrī Önör house-of near coming field-in when he And elder son was. Hislēng kēnjtur. Aniōr chākarknā yendānā ani tab bājā avvatur servants-of dancing-of he-heard. he noiseAndand musichad-arrived then 'id bāl püchhē-kītur, muttis kēisī undītun apnō ropatal 'this what asked, his-own having-called near among-from one dādāl bhōj tammur vātor; ani nīvōr 'nīvor ānd?' Ör ōn-sē ittur, has-come; and thy father a-feast said. 'thy brotheris?' Hehim-to pantor.' Pē ōr sõngā bhalō changō idēn-lānē ki ōn kitor, wellhe-has-received.' But he angrythat him goodthis-for has-made, dādāl bahrō handālē hille chāhē-māyōr. Tab ōnōr rōpā ātur ani father outThen his and within to-go notwishing-was. became javāb dādān Ōr sīsī apnō manē-kiyā-lātur. vāsī ōn entreaty-to-make-began. He answer givinghis-own father-to him having-come kiyātonā, ani tahal nannā ichchõ barshāngnāl nīvā 'hūrā, ittur, am-doing, andthyservice I years-from 'see, so-many said, immā nākun ani hukumtun hille tārē-kivon, nīvā bapporē transgressed, thou me-to commandment and thynot -at-any-time pīlā gadā hille ki nannā apnö undi vētīnā sēvī. bapporē gavest, thatΙ my-own goat-of young-one even notat-any-time one marrī vātur jō ēr ānand kiyēnā. Pē jab nivör sang mītk-nā who friends-of with rejoicing might-make. But when thythis son came

tinjētor tab immā ōnā-lānē nīvā sampat visyangna sang bhōj thenthouwithproperty has-eaten him-for a-feast thyharlots-of ٠ē din ittur, marrī, immā sag nāvā āndī, kītonī.' Ōr ōn-sē sang said, son, thou alldaymywithПе him-to art, hast-made.' ānd. $P\bar{e}$ ānand kiyānā ad sab nīvā ani nāvā jō-bārāngē mine thatallthine is. Butrejoicings to-doand whatever andtammur uchit mattā. Bārī-ki $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}$ nīvēr sāsī āyānā ānand brother having-died was. Because-that thisthyto-become proper merry puttor.' pistor; rachchhī mattor, ani ani mattor, and is-found.' andcame-alive; having-been-lost was, was,

In Bilaspur Göṇḍī is now quickly disappearing and giving way to Chattīsgaṛhī. It is still spoken in the hills. The number of speakers was estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 8,450. In 1901, however, only 2,119 were returned.

The Gonds of Bilaspur trace their origin to Mandla, and the dialect is essentially the same in both districts. Compare what is said about the Gonds of Bilaspur in the Report of the Ethnological Committee. Nagpore, 1868, Part ii, pp. 5 and ff.

The beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows will be sufficient to show that the language is ordinary Göndi, though the specimen is rather corrupt.

[No. 45.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖNDÎ.

(DISTRICT BILASPUR.)

Bōrē Some		• •	nattā. Önā- vere. Them-f		c hiḍur he-younger	marrī son
dāhran the-father-to		dadā, nā-igā father, me-to	battīyē man coming will-		nākun <i>me-to</i>	siyā to-give
chāhi.' is-wanted.'	Ingā onigā Now him-to	jō-kuchhu mat whatever wa		tūsītur. divided.	Balē Many	diyā days
hile āyē	•		kuchhu und whatever one	• 0	kīsī having-mad	anī de and
	$rac{{ m tur.}}{{ m id.}}$ Agā $There$	hańji <i>having-gone</i>	jō-kuchhu <i>whatever</i>	mattā <i>was</i>	tān that	kharāb wasted
kīsī having-made	vāṭtur. he-threw-aw	ıy				

To the north of Mandla lies the district of Jabalpur. Göndi is here only spoken in the hills. The number of speakers at the Census of 1891, when there was a large temporary influx of Gönd harvesters, was 24,130. In 1901, when the total number of Gönds in the district was 78,689, only 5,422 speakers of Göndi were returned. Compare the Report of the Ethnological Committee, quoted under Authorities, Part ii, pp. 1 and ff.

The specimens received from the district are rather corrupt and much mixed with Aryan forms and words. The beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son will show that they represent the same form of speech as that illustrated in the preceding pages. Note the frequent omission of case suffixes and forms such as $imm\bar{e}$, thou; $m\bar{e}dk\bar{\iota}$, in order to tend; $hill-ang\bar{a}$, was not, etc.

[No. 46.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖNDĪ.

(DISTRICT JABALPUR.)

mattān. Chudur tural dādan rando chhauvān Urrar ādmī were. The-younger ROB the-father-to One man(-to) sons twohissā sīsum. Jō kuchh mālmattā sō tusī 'nāvā kattur ki, property share give. Which some that dividing said that, 'my Valē hil-vāyēvākē chudur tural bēsī dindhan dādal sītur. the-father Many daysnot-came the-younger sonallproperty gave. dēste. jarīsī mattur $Agg\bar{a}$ sagā dhan baghē-lē hatur ha anotherwent country-in. There riotously anas allcollecting property Vō dēste barā akāl arsī mattā. One-gat khoiki sītur. having-fallen big famine squandering gave. Thatcountry-in was. Him-near Ā barē ādmī-ingan mandā-lātur, hill-angā. dēste nōkrī bārē to-live-began, That bigman-near service anything not-was. country-in Ōn nēlī rōchītur mēdkī padī. kiyā-lātur. Himfieldsentto-feed pigs. to-do-began.

In Narsinghpur, as in Bilaspur and Jabalpur, Göndi is only spoken in the hills, and the dialect is gradually disappearing from the district. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 800. In the Census of 1901 only 383 were returned.

The Gondi of Narsinghpur cannot, under such circumstances, be expected to be an unmixed form of speech. The Aryan element is rather strong, and the dialect will soon cease to be a Dravidian form of speech.

The difference between the two genders is disappearing, and the suffixes of the plural are not often used. The case suffixes are modified, and so forth. Compare mārsalnōr rand chhavā mattur, Standard mārsānāng rand chhavāng mattāng, a-man-of two children were; dādalrān, Standard dādān, to the father; dādalōn, Standard dādālōr, fathers, etc.

'I' is $an\bar{a}$, and 'we' $im\bar{a}n$. The form $m\bar{a}\bar{o}r$, his, occurs too often to be a mere blunder. $M\bar{a}\bar{o}r$, $m\bar{a}v\bar{a}$, also means 'my.'

The inflexion of verbs is also corrupt, the various forms being interchanged. Compare sāyātur, Standard sīyātōnā, I am dying; sīm and sītur, give, etc.

It is not, however, of any use to go into details. The beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows will show how mixed and corrupt the Gondi of Narsinghpur is.

[No. 47.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖŅDĪ.

(DISTRICT NARSINGHPUR.)

Barrūr mārsalnor raņd chhavā mattur. A-vital chudur pēdgal. twowere. Them-from man-of sons the-younger boy māōr dādalrān kattur. ' bārī dādal, rōn dhan ichchō māvā ٠0 his father-to said, father, house property how-much my hīsā hai. $m\bar{a}k$ sīm.' Phir dādal ōrun māōr dhan tūsītur. give. Then the-father shareme them-to hisproperty divided. Bāryē din pijjā chudur pēdgal māur dhan ēchhī-kun lakdar Some after daysthe-younger boyhispropertyhaving-taken distant dēś hattur udēn hukkē luchpanten kīsī-sītur. sab Sab dhan riotousness-in went and therecountry alldoing-gave. Allproperty mārsat-horsiat dēśtēn ad parā kāl udēn inēkē artā, vor karrū spent-on-being thatcountry-in bigfamine fell, andnow hewith-hunger sāy-lātur. Tab vorrē barrūr dēśī-mārsalnör nīgā chākur lägtur. to-die-began. Then heservant somecountry-man-of near stayed. paddī mēhtā \mathbf{U} dēn ōr nirsi, ōn vorrē vallēn paddīnor tindā-lēnī Andhehimto-feed pigs having-sent, heallpigs-of eating-of phaliyönrän mäur pīr pańchtan nihtātur; barrē mārsal ōn bārē husks-with belly full hiswas-filling; anyman himanything hillen dāylē mattur. Jab ōn khabar vāt, vōr katā-lātur. notto-give When was. him-to sensecame. heto-say-began, 'daiyā, nāur dādalnōr vallēn chākrānkhōn pir pańchtan tindātonā pijjā 'O-God, father-of mymany servants-to bellyfulleating after māita-hat, pissī udēn anā karrū sāyātur. Udēn inēkē anā something left-is, and I with-hunger die. And now I tēchchhu-kun dādalnōr nīgā handātōnā udēn · katātonā, "ē dādal. anā arising father-of near will-go " O and will-say, father, Ι tuddī-sāman bhagvanta $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{i}$ pāp-dōkh kitur. Anā inēkē nīur chhavā thyface-before God-of sinmade. I now thy sonkatānā lākh $an\bar{a}$ hillenā. Niur chākur-vallēntē undhinör barrūr to-be-called worthy I am-not. . Thyservants-in one-of some irsēnā mākun nirsēnā." Tab tēchchhī õr nichchhtur udēn māur like keep." me Then arising stoodandhis dādalnōr nīgā hattur. Dādal ōn lakdal hūrsētur, vānākē ōn. father-of near went. The-father himfar-from coming himsaw,

uchchhī-kun jhumā-mātur parro parājīvā kitur ōn gurūngārān udēn compassion made having-run him neck-to pressed on andētur. chumā kisstook.

No specimens have been forwarded from Damoh and Saugor, and Gōṇḍi is quickly disappearing from those districts. Local estimates give 1,200 as the number of speakers in Damoh. In 1901, when 27,521 Gōṇḍs were enumerated in the district, only 377 were returned as speaking Gōṇḍi. In Saugor the local estimates gave so high a figure as 2,400. In 1901 only three speakers were returned, though the number of Gōṇḍs in the district was 21,546. The Gōṇḍs are known as Bhōi Gōṇḍs, and their language was called Pārsī as in Mandla. They are chiefly found in Kesla Pargana of Rehli Tahsil. Only a few old people still speak Gōṇḍī.

Gōṇḍī has also been returned as the language of 150 individuals in Bhopal. At the Census of 1901, 20,268 speakers were returned. No specimens have been obtainable and it seems probable that most of the Gōṇḍs of the district have given up their native tongue.

Proceeding southwards from Narsinghpur we reach the district of Chhindwara where Gōṇḍī is, to a great extent, spoken in the north. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 125,100, and it was 104,168 at the Census of 1901.

AUTHORITY-

Dawson, Rev. James,—Gondi Words and Phrases. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxix, P. i, 1870, pp. 108 and ff., and pp. 172 and ff.

The dialect of Chhindwara in most respects agrees with the grammatical sketch on pp. 486 and f.

With regard to the inflexion of nouns, we may note the dative $\bar{a}dm\bar{\imath}kun$, to a man, in the first line of the specimen.

The dialect uses the numerals armur, eight; unmāk, nine; pad, ten.

With regard to pronouns, we may note $ann\bar{a}$, I, as in Narsinghpur; $amm\bar{o}t$, we; \bar{a} -pide, in him, among them.

The pronoun $b\bar{a}ng$, what? has a genitive $b\bar{a}nd\bar{o}r$, $b\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$, etc., and a dative $b\bar{a}tkun$.

The conjugation of verbs is mainly regular. An n is, however, added to the second person singular in tenses formed like $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}n$, I did. Thus, $\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}n$, thou wast; $k\bar{\imath}nd\bar{\imath}n$, thou wast doing. The third person neuter of the future ends in $\bar{a}l$ and not in $\bar{a}r$; thus, ad $k\bar{\imath}a\bar{a}l$, she will do.

The present tense of the verb substantive is $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}n$, I am. In other dialects this form is an imperfect.

'I am beaten' is translated annā mār tindātōnā, I am eating stripes. This translation shows that Gōṇḍī has not a fixed form for the passive.

In other respects the dialect is quite regular, as will be seen from the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows. Note only the use of ordinary tenses in negative clauses. Mr. Dawson, however, gives the ordinary negative forms, and the compiler of the specimen was certainly wrong in not introducing them.

[No. 48.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅŅĨ.

(DISTRICT CHHINDWARA.)

dāū-sē Bōrē ādmīkun rand mark matturk. Chuddur marrī the-father-to were. The-younger Some man-to twosons son nā-juar dhan aiyāl nākun varkē-kisim.' vanktur, 'dāŭ, bad ad what property will-be thatseparate-make.' father, me-to me-tospoke, tūstur. Tān thōrō Aske āplō dhan örkun pajā diate That-of property he-divided. afterfewThen his them-to days-in $m\bar{a}l$ kīsī-kun lakk sabrō samti dēhāte chuddur marrī wealthtogether having-made allfar country-to the-younger son garsī-kun undē kal uñjī-kun sabrō chalsī hattur. $Agg\bar{a}$ māl playing and wine drinking allhaving-gone went. There wealthmāhttur pajā dēhāte māhchitur. Sabrō māl $t\bar{a}n$ ad parā Allwealthhad-squandered thatafter thatcountry-in squandered. bighalle hattā; tindālē badē vāta. Aske kāl hundur arsī famine having-fallen went: to-eat anything not came. Then there hañji-kun rōn lāgsī hattur. $\bar{O}r$ ōn nēde ādmīn-igē ōnā hishouse staying became. He himman-near having-gone field-in röhchītur. Aske badden tölk padding mahtālē tindung padding to-feed sent. Then which husksthe-swine were-eating swine Parōr tindālē hurndur; bōrē halle situr. addēn vāsī gave. anybody he-tried; himnotBig (i.e. wise) thoseto-eat becoming ' nāvōr dāūná rōte hattur, aske 'aplo jīāte vēhtur, bachālē his mind-in he-advised, 'my father's house-in went. then how-many tindālē puttilātā, annā karrök saiātonā. naukarkun sarī Annā nāvor servants-to to-eat breadis-got, I hungry am-dying. Ι myvitsī-kun dākā, ōn indākā. "dāū, pēnknā sēvā dāūn-ige halle will-say, "father, him God's father-near running will-go, worship notkēnjtān; nīvā halle * nīvor achhō marri hallenan. kītān, Nigā thy(-word) not I-heard: thynot-am. I-did, good2012 Now mandākom." nī-juar mazdāride will-stay." service-in thee-with

In Hoshangabad Göndi is spoken in the eastern corner, towards Chhindwara and Narsinghpur. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 41,550. At the last Census of 1901, 27,740 speakers were returned.

The dialect of Hoshangabad in most respects agrees with that spoken in Chhindwara. Compare $\bar{a}nd$, it is; $an\bar{a}$, I. The chief peculiarity of the dialect, however, is the use of l instead of r in nouns, pronouns and verbal forms of the third person singular. Thus, $v\bar{o}l$ ittul, he said. The same l also occurs in the termination of the genitive before a singular masculine noun and in some numerals, etc. Thus, $d\bar{e}\acute{s}t$ -ul, of the country; varul, one; irul, two, etc.

The usual form of 'one' is *undī*, and of 'two' *raṇḍ*. *Varul* is used as an indefinite masculine pronoun, and *irul* is sometimes used instead of *raṇḍ* when the qualified noun is of the masculine gender.

The r of plural forms of verbs and pronouns is a cerebral r; thus, $v\bar{o}r$ $itt\bar{o}r$, they said. The same pronunciation prevails over a large area, in Betul, Ellichpur, Akola, Nagpur, Seoni, Balaghat, Bhandara, Khairagarh, Nandgaon, Raipur, and Sarangarh. The original texts sometimes write d and sometimes r. Thus, $\bar{o}dk$ and $\bar{o}rk$, they. I have written r throughout.

The adverbial participle ends in ke and not in re; thus, $k\bar{\imath}s\bar{o}ke$, doing.

There is a verbal noun formed from the past participle; thus, hattate, in the going, when he went; vakhtute, in the roaring, while he was roaring.

Note also the neuter negative hale roval, it was not.

Further details will be easily understood from the specimen which follows.

[No. 49.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(DISTRICT HOSHANGABAD.)

śikārī Undī dīyā narkā dangur śikārkun hattul. Undī hirnī One daya-hunter at-night to-a-forest hunting-for went. Onedeerdangur-nēde mērte hursī vol kattul, 'anā jīkā.' Vonā āvāj kēnjtu, forest-field-in grazing-in having-seen he said. 'I will-kill.' His sound heard, to danguţikke sorīt. Võl śikārī bhitānā pichārī vittul. Hirņī valewood-into fled.Thathunter also itsback-at ran. The-deer very far sorīsī hatt. Agā hañjī mēī-lāt. Vol sikārī tānā pichārī vittul. There having-gone to-graze-began. fleeing went. itsback-at That hunter ran. Hirnī ittāl jagāte hañjī āvat. agā īhūn jārī agā such place-in The-deer having-gone came, there such jungle was-found, there hañjī magsī hatt. Võl śikārī kaiik masī-kīsōke rahē-mattul. having-gone having-hidden went. That hunter hands wringing staying-was. Sikātī āsī hatt-te vol udas man kīsī-kun ron vattul. Vol Darkness having-become coming-in he afflicted mind having-made house Hethörösö hattul ki pullī vankhtute vol āvāj kēnjtul. Vol apno pisana little distance went when lion roaring-in he sound heard. hislife-of He

hailē irol. Undī marāte hañjī-kun tarīsī hattul. Pulli gharī-ēk hope not kept. One tree-in having-gone climbing wen!. The-lion in-a-moment mañji-kun vankhtūke idē marā sidvāt. Pullitun hursi-kun having-remained roaring that-very tree reached. The-lion having-seen heapnō mante rañj kitul; vol kattul kē, 'harnin hale jiyalē vāēnā tō his mind-in regret made; he said that, 'the-deer not to-kill if-I-had-come then nāvā jīvā dukhte hale rōval.' my life mishap-in not had-been.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A hunter once went to hunt at night in the wood. He saw a deer grazing in a field in the wood and resolved to kill it. The deer heard the noise he made, and fled into the wood, and the hunter ran after it. It fled very far, and then began to graze. While the hunter was pursuing it, the deer had fled to a place where the jungle was thick enough to hide in. The hunter wrung his hands, but darkness having set in he made towards his house in low spirits. He had not gone far when he heard a lion roar. He fled for his life and climbed a tree. The lion soon came roaring to that very tree, and when he saw it he repented and said, ' if I had not come to kill the deer my life would not be in danger.'

Göndī has also been reported from Nimar where the number of speakers has been estimated at 2,200. At the Census of 1901, 1,693 speakers were returned. The Gönds of Nimar are mentioned in the *Report of the Ethnological Committee*, Nagpore, 1868, Part ii, pp. 112 and ff. It has not, however, been possible to get any specimens, and the local authorities some time ago stated that Göndī was no more spoken in the district.

The Göndi dialect of Betul and Amraoti is essentially the same as that spoken in Hoshangabad. Speakers are found all over both districts. Their number was estimated for this Survey at 94,000 in Betul and 12,000 in Amraoti. The figures returned at the Census of 1901 were 81,619 and 19,022, respectively.

It will be sufficient to give one specimen to illustrate the dialect as spoken in both districts.

It will be seen that l is substituted for r in the same cases as in Hoshangabad. Thus, $chu\dot{q}\dot{q}\bar{o}l$, the younger; kittul, he did; varul, one.

R is pronounced as r in words such as varā, come.

An h is prefixed to the neuter forms of pronouns in Amraoti; thus, had, that.

With regard to numerals, we find armul, eight; unmā, nine; pad, ten.

'I' is annā, as in Hoshangabad and Narsinghpur.

The inflexion of verbs is regular. Note andul, he is; jiyanur, they will strike; vitsure, running, etc.

The form matakē, may be, is perhaps a participle.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅŅĪ.

(DISTRICT BETUL.)

Varul ādmīnā raņd mark mattul. A-vitāl chuddol tūrāl dāūtun One man-of two Them-in-from the-younger son sons were. the-father-to nīvā ٠ē bābā, dhan-māltā-ivitāl jō nāvā ${
m hiss}ar{
m a}$ matakē nākun SŌ 'O father, thy said. property-in-from whatmy sharemay-be thatme-to ōl sīsim.' Tō senāl önk dhan-māl ōnā tūsī sītul. $\mathbf{Vall}\mathbf{\tilde{e}}$ diyā give.' Then that old-man him-to hisproperty dividing gave. Many a-day hall āyō ki chuddol ţūŗāl sab māltun arpā-kittul anilai lakk becamewhen the-younger not son allproperty collect-made and very far dēste hattul uņdē aggā luchpante \dim kāṭē-kittul, sab dhan-māl country-to went and there riotousness-in days spend-did, allproperty māhachchī-sītul. Jab võl dhan sab dūbē-kittul, achchō bakht having-squandered-gave. Whenhe all property spent-had-made, thattimedēste kāl art, undē võl kangāl āsī hattul. that-very country-in big famine fell, and he destitutehaving-become went. Ani ad mulkte hañjī-kun varul igā naukar rahē-mātul. Undē võl võn And that country-in having-gone one near servant staying-was. Andhehim paddī mēhtālē rohtul. Aggā vol kurmī paddī mēintā tānā field-in swine to-feed sent. There he husksswine were-eating them-from his bhinihtālē āndul. Pan ōn baddē chīj tindānā halle sēvol. belly also to-fill he-was. But him-to anyone thing to-eat

No specimens have been forwarded from Ellichpur where the estimated number of speakers was 4,427. The corresponding figures in 1901 were 6,148. The dialect is probably the same as in Amraoti and Betul.

Seventy-one speakers of Gōṇḍī were returned from Buldana at the Census of 1901. The old returns and the local reports make no mention of Gōṇḍī in the district, and it is probable that the speakers were immigrants from Akola.

The Gönds of Akola are known as Rāj Gönds. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 1,142. At the Census of 1901 their number had increased to 2,208.

The Göndī of Akola is a very corrupt form of speech. Thus, the genders are continually confounded, and the singular is often used instead of the plural; e.g., rand turāl āttu, two sons were; hissō vāyatōr, a share is coming, etc.

An h is commonly added before the neuter forms of demonstrative pronouns, just as was the case in Ellichpur; thus, had and ad, that. So also $h\bar{o}r$, they.

On the other hand, r and not l is used in those cases in which Standard Göndi has r; thus, δr , he.

R, originally written d, is substituted for r in plural forms of pronouns and verbs. Thus, $h\bar{o}r$, they. Forms such as $\bar{o}rk$, they, however, also occur.

With regard to numerals, we find armur, eight; pad, ten, but the usual forms for 'nine' and 'ten' are Aryan loan-words.

The pronoun 'I' was annā in Narsinghpur, Chhindwara, Hoshangabad, Betul, and Amraoti. In Akola we again find the form nannā which is used in all other districts, with the exception of the Patna State. 'We' is āmōt.

With regard to the inflexion of verbs, we must note forms such as $kint\bar{a}n$, he was doing. The final n in such forms can be the old termination of the third person. It is, however, just as probable that we have simply to do with a confusion between the first and third persons.

Note also forms such as $mand\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, we are; $k\bar{e}k\bar{a}r$, we shall do; $matt\bar{e}k\bar{e}$, it may be, etc.

The specimen abounds in blunders. It is, however, of no use to account for them, and it will be quite sufficient to refer to the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(DISTRICT AKOLA.)

mānvālnā Bōrē rand turāl āttu. Chudur turāl dāūn twoman-of sons were. Some The-younger son the-father-to 'dāū, paisānā hissō varkitur, nāvā vāytōr ad nākun sīm.' Mang 'father, money-of sharemine may-come that me-to give.' said, vātā-kisitur. sampat Mang thörke divayane hattur chudur turāl divide-did. property Then few days-only went the-younger son all-indeed jamā-kīsī-kun lakk muluk-mando hattur, ani aga valle paisa kharch-kintan. collected-having-made far country-in went, and there much money spent-made, Mang paisā māṛtun maṅg sampat urī-kintān. ōnā sab-ē ad mulukte property waste-did. Then his all-indeed money spent then that country-in akāl aršī-mattā. vakte \mathbf{Ad} ōn archan arsī-mattā. Or had heavy famine falling-was. That time-at him-to distress falling-was. He that country-in giristanigā rahē-mattu. Ōr tanvā nēde ōn paddī mēstālē rökhtu. householder-near staying-was. Hehis field-in him swineto-feed sent. Paddī jō chhilyā tindār adu aplō tindānā onā jivā āttu; bōrē Swine which husks atethat his eating-of his wish was; anyone sēvur hille. gave-not not.

Four hundred and fifty speakers of Gondi have been returned from Basim. In 1901 their number was only 273. Most of the Gonds are found in the east of the district.

The specimens received from Basim represent a much more correct form of Göndi than those forwarded from Akola. There are, however, a few instances of confusion between the two genders. Thus, $v\bar{a}tu$ and $v\bar{a}tur$, he came; $m\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, he was.

The form manyāl, to a man, instead of manyān, is perhaps due to the influence of the neighbouring Marathi.

With regard to pronouns, we may note immē, thou; immēt, you; hor, he.

The present tense of the verb substantive is formed as follows:-

Sing. 1. $mant\bar{o}n(\bar{a})$ Plur. 1. mantom.

2. $mant\bar{\imath}(n)$

2. mantīt.

3. m. mantor

3. m. mantork.

3. f. & n. mantā.

3. f. & n. mantang.

Compare and an, I am, etc., in Chhindwara and neighbouring districts.

The suffix n is used in many forms where it does not occur in the Standard. jīkā and jīkān, I shall strike; ētān, he took. Compare the forms mentioned above from Akola.

The form $y\bar{e}tur-\bar{a}$, he took, seems to present a similar wide use of the suffix \bar{a} of the first person singular.

The past participle $tint\bar{a}$, eaten, is used as a relative participle in $pad\bar{i}$ $tint\bar{a}$ $\hat{s}\hat{e}\hat{n}g\bar{a}$, swine eaten husks, the husks which the swine ate.

I do not understand the form kikā, taking.

For further details the student is referred to the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

[No. 51.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(BASIM DISTRICT.)

Varon manyal rand chhavang manta. Chidor bābān itor. ' bābā, A-certain man-to twochildren The-younger father-to said, 'father, jamētā hissā mākun sīm.' Mang jamētā hissā ētān. Mang thoda estate-of share me-to give. Then estate-of share he-took. Then a-few dinte vākā jingi kikā chidor dēśne hātān. Mang days-in the-whole property taking the younger another country-to went. Then khushī-sē kharch-kitan mang jingī udī-kitān. Paisā dukāl pleasure-with property he-squandered. Money had-expended then a-famine fell. Hādēn-murō ādchan ārtā. Aske dēśāte bhalē mānyārigē rahē-mātā. Therefore difficulty fell. Then country-in a-respectable man-near remained. Vor mānyā ōn nēd-rabō padī mēhtāļē rohitūr. ' Padī tintā śēngā into-the-fieldThat him-to ' Swine eaten swineto-graze sent. hāv tindākā.' nanā Bōrē hile sitä. Ōn $gy\bar{a}n$ vātu, varktur, 'nā thoseI will-eat. Anyone notgave. Him-to senses came, he-said, 'my bābonā chākartūn tindālē puţintā; nanā karū sātonā. Nanā āplō father-of servants-to to-eat is-sufficient; I of-hunger am-dying. I my-own bābonikē hankā ōn · inkā. "bābā, pēndā bāhirō nī dēkhat father-near will-go him-to will-say, "father, God-of against your in-presence pāp kitonā. Ingā niōr marī nī-lāyak hille. Bābā, nākun manyān I-did. Nowsinyour sonworthy am-not. Father, me-to a-servant irā." chākrī Mang bābonigē Mari vātu. lak harsi in-service keep." ' Thenfather-near came. The-son far-off having-seen bābā ayantō; pit-rapō māyā vadēde bilgē-mātu, vātu, mukā. the-father shed-tears; heart-in compassion came, on-the-neck embraced, kissyētur-ā. took.

In the district of Wun, Göndi was returned as the language of 53,000 individuals. The corresponding figures at the Census of 1901 were 55,495. The Gönds are found all over the district, especially in Kelapur and Yeotmal.

The dialect has several characteristic features of its own.

An \acute{s} is often used where ordinary Gōṇḍī has h; thus, $\acute{s}ur\~{a}$, see; $\acute{s}il\~{a}$, not; $\acute{s}ot\~{o}r$, he went; but $\hbar \~{a}k\~{a}n$, I will go. Forms such as $\hbar \~{o}r$, he; $\hbar id$, this thing, have already been noted from other districts.

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is mainly regular. Note, however, plural forms such as $p\bar{o}r\bar{a}l\bar{i}r$, sons; $pad\bar{i}k$, swine. There is apparently no difference between the declension of nouns denoting rational and those denoting irrational beings. Compare $d\bar{e}sn\bar{o}r$, of the country; divasne, in (some) days. Note $d\bar{e}s\bar{u}n$, to a country; $\bar{a}m\bar{o}t$, we; $\bar{a}m\bar{o}ku$, us; $im\bar{e}t$, thou; $im\bar{e}t$, you; $v\bar{o}nk\bar{u}n$, to him; $h\bar{o}rk\bar{u}n$, to them; $h\bar{o}n\bar{a}r$ $s\bar{a}t\bar{t}$, for his sake.

The present tense of the verb substantive is given as follows:-

Sing. 1. manton

Plur. 1. mantom.

2. mantī

2. mantīr.

3. mantor

3. mantēr.

Similar forms are also used of finite verbs. Forms such as $mant\bar{o}ram$, we are, do not seem to exist. Note also $jik\bar{a}n$, I shall strike; $v\bar{a}t$, it came; artu, it fell; $tind\bar{u}g$, (the swine) ate.

The past participle is used as an adjective. Thus, mastītā paḍā, the fattened calf. The same form also occurs as a verbal noun. Thus, kharchī-kitā-upar, expenditure-making-after, after he had spent.

Causative forms are ramvāyāṇāt, let us feast; ināvayā, to be called.

 $\bar{A}r\bar{u}$, to fall, is the Marathi form.

Further details will be seen from the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

[No. 53.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖNDĪ.

(DISTRICT WUN.)

Borī-undī. manyan rand poralir mator. Hor-ropo chidor A-certain man-to Them-from-among the-younger twosons were. bad bābān itor, 'bābā. paisā vātņī nāvā vātā father-to said, 'father, what property-(of) share mine may-come that śīm.' Mang hōr vonkun paisā vāttor. Mang thōdō divasne give.' Then him-to heproperty divided.Then a-few days-in chidor pōrāl āchōdē-hī jamā-kiśī lay langnā dēśūn sōtōr. the-younger whole-even having-collected very far-off country-into went, son ughdā-artorne rahē-vāśī āpņā paisā kharchī-kitor. there riotous-people-with and having-lived his-own propertyspent-made. Mang hör achöde-hi kharchī-kitā-upar hād dēśūn-ropo phērā sāthyā ārtu; he whole-even expended-made-after that country-into a-great famine fell; hādēn-karitā vönkün takliph ārū lāgtā. Indikē hōr hād dēśnör therefore him-to difficulty to-fall began. Therefore hethatcountry-of undī māṇyān-īgē sōśī rahē-vātōr. Hör-tar võnkün padik chāriman-near having-gone remained. He-on-his-part him-to swine graze-tovāvate rhētor. Indikē padīk bad tōkrē tindug hādēnmake his-own into-field sent. Then swine which husks were-eating thatphero hor āpnā pīr pañjānā. dihūn honkūn vātu-vāyā; börī he his-own belly should-be-filled 80 him-to to-appear-began; and anyone hönkün batā-hī śitor śilā. Mang hor śuddhīt-phōr vāsī itor, 'nāvā him-to anything gave not. Then he senses-on having-come said, bāponā bachör gadyāl-kūn pīr-mēnd sārī mantā, an nanā upāsīne father-of how-many servants-to belly-full breadis, andΙ of-starvation tēttśī nāvā bābon-hikē hākān anhönkün inkān, am-dying; I having-arisen myfather-near will-go andhim-to will-say, "hē bābā, nanā pēn-dā viruddh an nivā mune pāp "Oh father, I God-of against andyou before sin higdal kiton: nivā pōrāl i**n**dā**yā** nanā chōkhā śilā; nivā undī hence for thyour son to-be-called Ι fitam-not; your onemānyān-sārkhō nākūn irā.", Mang hōr tēśī. āpalō bābonikē sötür. servant-like keep." mehe arising his-own father-near Then went. Aske hör lang matanich hönör babö vönkün hudśī kīv an Then he far-off was-just his father him-to having-seen compassion came and

mithī vādtor an honā mukā yētor. Mang porāl hōr dhāv-kiśī hōnā vedēde kisstook. Then the-son his neck-on embracing put andhishe running viruddh an nivā mune nanā pāp kiton; 'bābā, ākāsnā honkun itor. heaven-of against and you before I sin have-done; said, father, him-to nivā pōrāl chōkhat śilā.' Pan bābānō ināvayā \mathbf{n} anā an higdāl to-be-called Iworthy am-not.' But the-father hence for thyour sontattśi vönkün 'chānglō jhagō ghāli-kim; mänyänkün vēhtor, āplō 'good him-toservants-to told, a-robe bringing put-on; his-own jodā ghāli-kim; mudā kālde mang mastītā kayde an an hônā put-on; thena-fattened his hand-on a-ring and feet-on shoes andBarākī tidkē ramvāyānāţ. hēr tattśī koyāt, anāmōku padā let-merriment-make. Becausethis eating bringing kill. and calfphirē-vāśī jitō ātor; an harē-vāśī põrāl sāśī mator, hör nāvor alivebecame; again-coming and lostdeadwas, hemylātēr. pudtor.' Aske hōr ramvāvā mator, hõr theymerriment-to-do began. Then he was-found.' was,

Mang vāvate mator. hör vāśī hönör phēröl pörāl Hād vēre Then he having-come in-the-field was. elder son That timeyandānā kēnjtor. vātā-upar hōr nēknā an najik rontā singing anddancing heard. had-reached-after he house-of near puśi-kitōr, 'hīd undītūn kēhśī hōr mānyān-ropodāl Aske he having-called asked. 'this servants-from-among one-to Then 'nivor tamūr vátor: kī, an āndu?' Hōr vonkūn itōr batā is? Hehim-to saidthat. 'your brother is-come; whathidēn-karitā hōr mastītā khuśāl pudtor bābōn nivõr hōr father-to safe-and-sound was-found therefore a-fattened your he sitā-śilā. Hiden-karita hôr ghussā-vāsī köytör.' Aske rōpō padā he getting-angry inside would-not-go. For-this-reason has-killed.' Then calflātor. Pan hōr võnkün samjī-kiyā vāśī bābō bāhēr hōnōr Butbegan. out having-come him-to to-entreat hefather hisvarsāng nivā chākrī ichong śitōr kī, 'surā, nanā uttar bābön your service I so-many years that, 'see, reply gave father-to mödī-kitön baskēhī śilā; nivā ādnyā nanā kitön an broke not ; order I ever-even and your am-doing mhaṇōn imē khuśālī kiyā söbtyān-sangö nanā nāvā tarī having-said make Ι friends-with happiness my stillpaisā rāndēntōdō bor nivā baske śitā śilā. An nākūn pāth harlots-with gaveAnd whoyour propertyme-to ever a-kidnot. honar-sathī aske imē poral vātör tinśī vāttōr hēr nivor hōr him-for then you your came having-eaten wastedthatthisson ' pōrā, imē itor, mastītā padā köyti.' Aske hôr vönkün said, ' son, you him-to have-killed.' Then he a-fattened calf 3 т

hamēsā nāvā-higē achōdē-hī manti, an nāvā paisā nivā-ch mantā. always me-with are, andwhole property thine-alone is. myPan ramvāyānā ānand kiyā hid matā. Bārākī an yōgy hēr Butto-be-merry thisandjoy to-make proper was. Because this nivõr tamūr sāśī mator, hōr phirē-vāśī jitō ātor; an harē-vāśī your brother deadwas, heagain aline became; andlostmator, hōr sāpdē vātor.' was, found is.'

In Wardha, Gōṇḍī is spoken all over the district. The number of speakers was estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 40,450. At the last Census of 1901, 39,385 speakers were returned. No specimens have been received, but the Gōṇḍī of Wardha is probably identical with that spoken in the neighbouring Nagpur.

The estimated number of speakers in Nagpur is 44,300. In 1901, 41,218 were returned.

A vocabulary and some songs in the Gondi dialect of Nagpur were published in the papers left by the Rev. S. Hislop and published by Sir R. Temple. See Authorities above.

The dialect spoken in Nagpur in most respects agrees with the grammatical sketch on pp. 486 and f.

Demonstrative pronouns begin with an h, and an r is usually changed to r between vowels. Compare $h\bar{o}r$, he; had, that; hid, this; $mar\bar{a}$, tree; $var\bar{a}$, come; $mand\bar{o}ram$, we are.

Nālung, four, has a definite form nālunte, the four.

'I' is $nan\bar{a}$, but the form $an\bar{a}$, which is common in Chhindwara, is used as well. 'We' is $\bar{a}m\bar{o}t$.

Verbs are regularly inflected in person and number. The present tense ends in $nt\bar{o}n\bar{a}$; thus, $sant\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I die; $sint\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I give, etc. 'I am' is $mand\bar{o}n\bar{a}$.

Note māyāl, it will be; malkē, it may be; ilkē, saying, and so forth.

For further details the specimen which follows should be consulted.

[No. 54.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(DISTRICT NAGPUR.)

ānik Undī musalmān undī marhātāl mattor. Hor marbātāl bazāre Musalman One and one Marāthā That was. Marāthā bazar-in Hön nāsiritā hattur. kauring savdātun kamtī hattung. Usdē Him-to quarterpice-of kauris went. article-to deficient went. Then bazāre hurintör hōnōr varkitör musalmān-sī nāsiritā kauring bazar-in lookedhis acquaintanceMusalman-from quarterpice-of kaurisētur ki. 'anā ingānēch dārōte nivā kauring nikun sintonā.' Hor tookthat. $^{\iota}I$ now-just house-at thykauris thee-to give.' That musalmān hañji hōnā darvāzāte hattur indā-lātur, ' nāvā nāsiritā Musalmanhaving-gone hisdoor-at went to-say-began, ' my quarterpice-of kauring bazāre ēchī-mattonī, had sim.' ${f Har onar a}$ bāyakō indā-lāt, kauris bazar-in having-taken-wast, that give.' Hiswife to-say-began, siyānur.' ' nāvor mõidõ jāvuntor, tavā Hör musalmän indā-lātur, husbandThat Musalman to-say-began, · my is-eating, afterwards he-will-give.' ētkā.' 'inganech Hönā bāyakō indā-lāt, 'hōn vadki vātā.' shall-take.' · now-just Hiswifeto-say-began, him-to fever came.' Musalmān indā-lātur, 'vāt bī, bhalē-mārī ingānē ētkā-ch.' The-Musalman to-say-began, 'it-came even, still now-just shall-take-indeed.' 'nāvor bāyakō indā-lāt, mõidõ sātur,' Hōnā itkē arī-lāt. Hiswife to-say-began, · my husband has-died,' saying to-cry-began. Musalmān bāng inttor, 'hurā, ingādā-ingānē bāng dhong kivā-lātur? The-Musalman what. said, ' see, immediatelywhat pretext to-make-began? bī ētkā. bhalē-mārī sātur tō $an\bar{a}$ Usdē hōnōr jātvālē stilldiedeven then I shall-take.' Then hiscastemen respectable ānik hōn ōyā-lātur. mānyāl vātur Āni rāt āsi hat. Hōr to-carry-began. himmen came Andnightcoming went. That musalmān marāte katyāri uchchī mattor. Āplō dilte indā-lātur, tree-in stickhaving-taken stayed. MusalmanHismind-in to-say-began, kitur.' Tō-usdē hōr bhalē 'hurā lēkāl dhöng mānyāl vāsī-mattör. made.' ' see the-rascal pretextThen thosegoodmen having-come-were. hörk murdātun hagānēch irsī-kun hattur. Handal nālung kalierk there-only thosethe-corpse having-put went. Thereafter four thieves vāndur. Hörknä kåldun śiri chamatkār dist. lägt. Ingā bēs were-coming. Their the-bier stuck. feet-to There goodwonder appeared. 3 T 2

Bōrē 'mākun indā-lātur, sapdē-māyāl, $m\bar{a}l$ āmōţ nariyal One-of-them to-say-began, to-us wealth found-will-be, we cocoanuts sikom, itāl näluntē janāl kabulē-mātur. Usdē hörk bhalē will-give, saying-from the-four men agreed-were. Then thosegoodmānvāl misālē vāsī-mattor, hörknä-ch rōte hôrk kallērk chōrī their-exactly men to-bury having-come-were, in-house thosethieves theft handā-lāturk. Undī janāl inttor, 'āplētun had hagā chamatkār having-made to-go-began. One said, man "us-to thatthere wonder disī-mattā, hagā dā.' Hörk vāturk nariyal situr, bōrē kērk situr. They was-seen, there go.' came cocoanuts gave, somefowls gave. Nāluntē gatting hagānē irturk, kāl kari-lātur. Usdē hōr murdā Four bundles there-exactly put, feet to-bow-began. Then hecorpse āsī-mattor, hör hagādāl tettāp ātur. Hörk kallērk mattor. becoming-was, hetherefrom getting-up became. Those thieves were, södisī-hattur. Usdē hōr marhātāl hāv tāchī gatting öyā-lātur. Then thatfleeing-went. $Mar\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ thosebundles taking to-carry-off-began. $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{s}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$ marātāl hōr musalmān hurintur, 'hurā, lēkāl kallērknā Then thattree-from Musalman was-seeing, 'lo, thieves-of the-rascal jamā oyā-lātur. Nitā, sālvā. nāvā nāsiritā kauring to-carry-off-began. Stop, property brother-in-law, my quarterpice-of kauris hid-ē vakatně Hor sim.' marhāţāl indā-lātur, 'rōte dā, nikun this-very time-at give. That Marāthā to-say-began, ' house-to thee-to nivā nāsiritā kauring sikā.' Usdē hõr musalmān vāsī-kun will-give.' quarterpice-of kauris Then thatMusalman having-come darvāzāte nittur āni indā-lātur, 'nāvā nāsiritā kauring sim.' Usdē door-in stoodand to-say-began, ' my quarterpice-of kauris give.' Thenmarhātāl hōr undī latt tantur hōn jisi-situr. Hōr arī-lātur, usde that Marāthā one sticktookhimbeating-gave. Heto-cry-began, then indā-lātur, 'halle, bāpā, halle talkon.' father, to-say-began, "not, not I-ask.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there were a Musalmān and a Marāthā. One day the Marāthā went into the bazar to buy something, and he found he wanted a quarter pice worth of kauris.¹ He looked about him in the bazar and asked the Musalmān, whom he happened to know, to give him the missing kauris, saying that he would pay them back immediately he got home. Then the Musalmān went to his door and said, 'pay me back the kauris you borrowed in the bazar.' The Marāthā's wife came out and said, 'my husband is just dining. He will pay you later.' The Musalmān said, 'I will have my money at once.' The wife said, 'he has caught the fever.' The Musalmān said, 'never

¹ The value of the kaurī differs. One pice is equal to about 100 kaurīs.

you mind, I must have my money at once.' Said the wife, 'my husband is dead,' and she began to cry. What did the Musalman answer? 'Lo,' he said, 'what tricks is he at now? Even if he is dead, I shall have my money.' Then respectable men of the Marāṭhā's caste came to carry him out. When the night set in the Musalman took a stick and sat down in a tree, and began to think, 'lo, the rascal is pretending.' the men who had come put the corpse in that very place and went away. Then four thieves came, and their feet got entangled in the bier. They thought this a good omen, and one of them said, 'if we get rich, we will make an offering of cocoanuts.' agreed on the matter, and went to steal in the house of those very men who had come to bury the corpse. Said one of them, 'let us go to where we saw the wonder.' They went and made an offering of cocoanuts and some fowls. They put down four bundles and began to worship. Then the man who had died got up, and the thieves fled. The Marāthā took the things they had left and prepared to carry them off. The Musalmān looked from the tree, 'lo, the rascal is carrying off the property of the thieves. Stop, scoundrel, give me my kauris this very moment.' The Maratha said, 'come to my house, and I shall pay.' Then the Musalman went to the door and said, 'give me my quarter pice worth of kauris.' The Maratha then took a stick and began to beat him. He began to cry and said, 'I shall not ask for them any more, father.'

Eighty-seven thousand three hundred and fifty speakers of Gondi have been returned from Bhandara, where the dialect is spoken in the north-east, towards Balaghat. The corresponding figures in 1901 were 55,705.

The dialect is almost identical with that spoken in Nagpur. 'I' is, however, only $nann\bar{a}$, and 'I am' is $mant\bar{o}n(\bar{a})$. Note also hilen, I am not; $hile\ handur$, he went not, etc.

The specimen which follows is the report of a theft.

[No. 55.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖŅDĪ.

(DISTRICT BHANDARA.)

KALLĒNĀ RAPŌŢ. THEFT-OF REPORT.

Hanēt-nētī śukarvārtā narkā āmōt sab mānvālk rot-rapo-Day-before-yesterday Friday-of at-night we allmen house-in mattorom. Narum suñchi narkātā andastē nākun khad-khad were. Middleabout having-slept night-of me-to khadkhad ihun āvāj kēnji-vātu rot-rapo. Nākun samji-mātu matēkē; nay having-heard-came the-house-in. such noise Me-to thought-was a-dogmight-be; nanā tēttā hile. Sakārtā pāhrō suñchi tēchchi, nāvā rot-rapo I got-up Morning-of timehaving-slept having-arisen, not. my house-in undī khōlī mantā, had khōlīnā kavād ughdō vakhatnē distu. Sujānā roomthere-is, that room-of door open oneappeared. Sleeping-of time-at nanā hid kavād lāgsi sisi-matonā. Kavād ughdō bāhun this I door having-closed having-given-was. The-door why open hid nanā ātu hurtān: had khölīte nāvā undī adkāte nūr became this Ibegan-to-see: that hundred room-in myone earthen-pot-in sōnōnā undē isrāng nūr rupiyā kimmatnā irsi-matonā. rupees andgold-of ornaments hundred rupees worth-of having-kept-I-was. Khōlīte hañji-kun bad adkāte māl irsi-matonā had adkā In-the-room having-gone which pot-in propertyhaving-kept-I-was thatpot nākun örtäl distu. ani hile mattā. hagā māl Nanā rot-rapo valē to-me broken appeared, and there property not Ihouse-in was. many thikānte hurtan; puțta bagā māl hile. 'Bōrē-tari places-in made-a-search: anywhere property was-obtained not. 'Someone kalsi matēkē, māl ōsi iñji-kun nanā hid kallēnā property having-stolen having-taken-away may-be,' having-said Ithistheft-of rapot kivālē vātān. Nāvā rõn kallēnā $nark\bar{a}$ nāvā rand chākar. to-make have-come. reportMyat-house theft-of at-night mytwo servants, hōnā nāv Rāmā undē Gopālā, suñchi matork. Horkun-rapo nāvā their $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ names and Gōpālā, sleeping were. Them-among myGopālā subhā nāvtā mānvān-parō mantā. Nāvā śējārte hör $G\bar{o}p\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ suspicion by-name man-on is. Myneighbourhood-in thatmānvān sarikhō undī Gōmā nāvtōr kallē-kiyē mānvāl mantor. man likeone $G\bar{o}m\bar{a}$ by-name theft-committing a-man in. nāvā Hōr mānyāl rōn vātē-hattē-kē mantör. Hōr nākun undī That to-house man mycoming-and-going is. Heme one

sitēkē rand mānvāltun rupyāng hurtur, undē āth divsān pajā nāvā eightmen-to rupees while-giving saw, two and daysagomy 'nivā chākar Gopālā yēn hör pusi-kitur, mālik āplō jamā bagā was-asking, $G\bar{o}p\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ thishethy: master his-own servant property where irator?' nākun samji-mātu. Yēr mānvān ihun hanēt-nētī keeps?' to-me known-was. This 80 man day-before-yesterday dinte pāhātōnge rōn vāsi-mator. Hōr vīsā rupyāng day-at in-the-morning my at-house having-come-was. Hetwenty ru pees talkandur. Nanā karji nākun hōn bāngē karjā sitā hile. Hor was-asking. I loan me-to to-him any loan gavenot. Heśēkdā rand rupyāng byāj siyālē kabūl hile Hōr mator. handā-lātur tworupees per-cent. interest to-give readynot was. Heto-go-began had vakhatne hör nākun ittur. 'nētā narkā nivā ron bati āntā, `thisthatat-time he me-to said. what happens, nightthyin-house hurā.' Yēr mānvāl nēnd dusrō nār ihun nākun mālum-ātu. see.' This to-day man another to-village me-to known-became. Yēra-ch mānvāl nāvā jamā ösi-kun jõrisi-kun hanji-mateke, This-very might-have-gone, man my property having-taken having-run hid mukadmānā chavkasi āyānā. thiscase-of enquiry be-made.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

REPORT OF A THEFT.

Friday night, the day before yesterday, we were all sleeping in my house. About midnight I heard a rattling noise in the house. I thought it might be a dog, and did not get up. Early in the morning I arose and found that the door of a certain room in the house was open. I had shut that door when I went to sleep, and I began to look for the cause of its having been opened. I kept hundred rupees and hundred rupees worth of ornaments in an earthen pot in that room. On entering the room I found that the earthen pot had been broken, and the property was not there. I made a search in several places in the house, but my property could nowhere be found. Thinking that somebody might have stolen the things and carried them off, I have come to make a report of the theft. On the night of the theft two servants, Rāmā and Gōpālā by name, slept in the house. Of them I suspect Gopālā. There is in my neighbourhood another man like him, called Goma, who is in the habit of committing thefts. He often comes to my house, and he has seen me give money to one or two persons. I have also heard that eight days ago he asked my servant Gōpālā, 'where does your master keep his money?' On the day before yesterday he came to my house in the morning and asked me for a loan of twenty rupees. I did not give him the loan, because he would not agree to pay two per cent. interest. When going away he said to me, 'look what will happen in your house to-night.' I am told that he has to-day departed to another village. He may have run away with my property, and an enquiry should be made into the matter.

Gōṇḍī is spoken everywhere in the district of Balaghat. Local estimates give 76,300, and the returns of the Census of 1901, 54,168 as the number of speakers.

The dialect is, in all essentials, the same as in Mandla. The specimens forwarded from the district are, however, somewhat corrupt. The two genders are, for example, often confounded. Thus, jō ananś āynur ōn sēkā, which share (neuter) will be (masc.), that (masc.) give; avhēkūn, to him.

R becomes r in plural forms of pronouns and verbs; thus, $\bar{o}_r kun$, to them; $mand\bar{o}_r$, they were.

The inflexion of nouns and verbs is regular. 'I am' is $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}n$ as in Seoni, Chhindwara, etc. The corresponding form is an imperfect in other districts. A list of words which has not been reproduced gives $ma\tilde{n}j\bar{i}$, was, for all persons and numbers.

Note also forms such as bāṭākī, dividing; uṛēkī, wasting; sēkā, give.

For further details the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows should be consulted.

[No. 55.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖNDĪ.

(DISTRICT BALAGHAT.)

Varū ādmīnā rand mark mandor. Ōn-mē̃-sē chudūr marrī man-of One twosons were. Them-in-from the-younger sontannā bābhōrān-sē itūr, ʻjō nāvā ananś āynūr ōn sēkā.' his father-to said, 'what myportion will-be thatgive.' Tab ōr örkun tannā dhan bātā-kī sītūr. Valediyan hille āt, Then hethem-to hisproperty dividing daysgave. Manybecame, tab chudūr sab undī jaghā tūrān kīsī dūsrē dēśtūn allthen the-younger one place having-made another country-to Tab jholjhapat hatūr. agā hañji kīsī tannā din agā Thentherehaving-gone wickedness went. having-made hisdaysthere Tab kātē-kītūr. tannā dhan urēkī sītūr, tab ad dēste Then hisproperty pass-made. spending then gave, thatcountry-in pharā sūkhā art. Tab ōn-igā batī hille rahē-māt. Tab famine fell.Thennot remaining-was. great him-near anything Then hañjī ad dēstor ōr agā mānvālkūn sang varūn-igā there having-gone that country-of hemenwithone-near Tab mandā-lātur. Tab tannā nēde paddīn mēhtālē röhtür. auto-stay-began. Then hehisfield-in pigsto-feed sent. Then thosepaddīn bhusā tiñjī tamā avhēkūn pîr nīhtātān borē hille sēvor. their huskseating swine bellyfilling-were themanyone notgave.

Tab avhēkun akal vāt. Tab ör ittür kī, 'nāōr bābhōrāna bachölē Then him-to sense Then he said that, 'my came. father's how-many banihiyark kisī-mator; tab valēnē gāṭō jāvā āytā. Nannā karūnē servantsworking-were; then rice food moreis. I hunger-with sāytonā. Nannā tēchī nāvōr dāhōrān-igā dākā tab ōn-sē am-dying. I. having-arisen will-gofather-near mythenhim-to indākā, "Yē bābā, nannā Bhagvāntāl pāp kītān, tab nīvā munne bhī will-say, "O father, I God-from sindid, then theebefore alsopāp kītān. Nannā niōr marrī bahūntē āykā? Nākun tannā banhiyārkūn I-did. I thy80n how can-be? Meyour $servants \cdot of$ varūnā barābar kim." one-of likemake."

Gondi is spoken all over the district of Seoni. The number of speakers has been estimated at 146,000, and it was returned as 102,747 at the Census of 1901.

AUTHORITIES-

Manger [Mauger], O.,—Specimen of the language of the Goands as spoken in the District of Scones, Chuparah; comprising a Vocabulary, Grammar, etc. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Vol. xvi, Part i, 1847, pp. 286 and ff.

[Lyall, Sir A. J.],—Report of the Ethnological Committee on Papers laid before them and upon Examination of Specimens of Aboriginal Tribes brought to the Jubbulpore Exhibition, 1866-67. Nagpore 1868, Part ii, pp. 57 and ff.; Part iii, pp. 286 and ff.

The dialect of Seoni does not much differ from that spoken in Mandla.

R becomes r in plural forms and often between vowels. Thus, $\bar{o}rk$ $\bar{a}ndurk$, they are; $parks\bar{o}re$, searching.

'We' is amot and mamet; and 'his' is ona and tanva.

With regard to the inflexion of verbs we may note $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}n$, I am, as in Balaghat, Chhindwara, etc. The form $tind\bar{a}k\bar{a}t$, let us eat, is a future, formed from the first person singular by adding t.

Mauger gives forms such as tindi, eats; and tinji, ate, for all persons and numbers.

Note $v\bar{a}t\bar{u}nd$, he used to destroy, and forms such as $art\bar{e}n$, when it falls; $j\bar{o}kt\bar{e}n$, if you kill. They are formed from a verbal noun derived from the past participle. Compare the corresponding forms in Beradī mentioned on page 602 below.

The negative verb is regular. Forms such as hille sīndūr, he gave not, are simply the positive form added to hille. Similarly we find hille-n ānd, it is not.

The verb $s\bar{\imath}$, to give, seems to be freely used in forming compound verbs. Compare $t\bar{a}ks\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}tur$, he went; $chals\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}t$, it went.

Two specimens have been received from Seoni. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second is a translation of a well-known fable.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY

GŌŅDĪ.

(SEONI DISTRICT.)

SPECIMEN I.

Varrur mānvānōr rand mark mattörk. Örknäl chuddur A-certain man-of twosons were. Them-from the-younger bābā, dāhōrān ittur, 'hē dhantāl jō nāvā bhāg vāītā nākun to-father said, father, wealth-from what my share comes me-to sīm.' Tab õrkun ōr tanvā dhan bātē-kīsī sītur. Vallē give. Then he them-to his-own wealth having-distributed gave. Many hille divān hannön ki chuddur marri sab barange samtē-kisīdaysnotpassedthat the-younger son allwhatevertogether-havingkun lak dēś tāksī-sītur anī aggā luchpanote tanvā madea-far country-to took-his-journey and thereriotous-living-in his-own sampat mähchī-vāttur. Ōr māhchī-ētur jab sab tab ad property squandered-away. Hewhenallhaving-squandered-took then that dēśte parā kāl art, anī ōr kangal ātur. Anī ad country-in a-great famine fell, and hepoor became. And that dēstörk mandānvārēṛknāl varrun-iggā hañjī-kun mandā lātur, bör ōn country-of inhabitants-from one-near having-gone to-live began, whohim paddin mahtālē tanvā nēde röhtur. Anī ōr aū jhilpan-sõ bavēn swineto-graze his-own into-field sent. And hethosehusks-with which paddin tindūn tanvā pīr nihtālē chāhē māndur. Anī bōrē hille swine atehis-own belly to-fill wishing was. And anyone notōn batī sindur. Tab ōn umach vāt, anī ōr ittur, 'mā anything himThen gave. to-him senseand came. he said, · my däunör bachālē chākark-un tindā parror, ahputtītā, aninannā father's how-many servants-to eatnot-can, breadis-obtained. and I sāitōnā. karrüte Nannā techchi-kan dāun-iggā nāvor handākā anī hunger-by am-dying. Ι having-arisen my father-near will-go and ōn-sē "hē indākā. bàbā, saragtā biruddh anī nīvā munne nannā him-to will-say, " O father, heaven-of againstand your before I pāp kitonā. Nannā id yögy hillenand ki nīvōr marri sinhave-done. Ithis worthy not-is that your son iñchihtan; nākun nīvor chākarknāl undit lēkhā banē-kīm." Tab I-called-myself: me your servants-from one likemake." Then

Par lakkē handā-lātur. ōr mattor ōr tēchchī tanvor dāhorān-iggā distant father-near to-go-began. Buthewas hehaving-arisen hisvichchī-kun kīvā kitur anī ōnā ki önör hūrsī-kun dāhōrāl ōn didandhaving-run hishaving-seen pity thathisfather him ētur. Marri ōn-sē ittur, chummā ghöngātun liptē-māsī ōnā clinging-having-become his kiss took. The-son him-to said. to-the-neck biruddh anī nīvā munne pāp kītonā; 'hē bābā, nannā saragtā 00 heaven-of against andyour before sinhave-done; father. Ι Par ińchihtan hillenand.' dāhōrāl marrī yōgy undē nīvōr anī your I-should-call-myself proper not-is.' Butthe-father andagain son 'ehōkōtk dikrin tandsī ōn chākarkun ittur. tanvor servants-to said, 'excellent a-robe having-brought him his-own ōnā kaïde muddā anī kāde sarpung karsīhāt, karsīhāt, anī on-hand a-ring on-foot shoes put-on. cause-to-put-on, andhis and tachchī jokkāt, anī aplō tindākāt anī mōtō kurrā ani we-will-kill, will-eat a-fatted calf having-brought and weandandsāsī ānand kēkāt. Barī kī ēr nāvōr marrī mattor, that having-died was, will-make. Becausethismysonrejoicing Tab uņdē puttor.' őŗk khōē-māsī mattor, undē pistor; was-found. Then lost-having-become again they again was-alive; was, kiyā lāturk. ānand to-dobegan. rejoicing

mattor. Anī jab ōr vānākē sojjōr nēde Ōnōr marrī Hiselder in-the-field was. And whenhe while-coming son ēndānā lēng kēnjtur. rōtā kachchul autur tab ōr nēkīnā anī dancing-of sound heard. arrivedthen he music-of andhouse-of near kachhul kaisī-kun chākarknāl tanvā ōr tanvör varrun Anī having-called his-own near hehis servants-from one-to And tammū and?' ittur, 'nīvōr 'id batī Ōr ōn-sē pūchhē-kītur, is ? ' said, 'your brother 'this whatHehim-to asked, nīvōr jöktör, dāhōrāl kurrātun barī-kī õn vātor mōtō anī calfhas-killed, because-that himhas-come and father a-fatted your pāē-mātor.' riss kitur roppō handālē bēśē-bēś Par anī ōr didand within to-go safe-and-sound he-received.' Butheanger hille chāhē-māyōr. Idēn-lānē ōnōr dāhōrāl bāhrō vāsī-kun ōn wishing-was. having-come himnot Therefore hisfather out'hūrā, nannā mānē-kiyā-lātur. $\bar{O}r$ uttar sītur ki, dāhōrān Ι entreating-to-make-began. Hegave that, see, to-the-father reply varsānāl kivātonā, baskēnē nīvā ichchō nīvā sēvā anī at-any-time years-from am-doing, and your so-many your service bappōrē undī hille mēṇḍhāl-pīlā urhiyon; āgyātun anī immā commandment nottransgressed; ever one goat's-young-one andthou

tērī hille sēvī ki nannā nāvor mitkun sangne ānand I friends withthateven not gavest myrejoicing might-make. Par kisbēhkun $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}$ nīvōr marrī bör sangne nīvā sampattun who your Butthisyour son harlots withpropertytiñjī vättur jab vātur tab immā ōn-sātī mōtō kurrā wastedwhen thouhim-for a-fatted having-eaten came then calfjōktōnī.' Dāhōrāl 'hē immā sadaōn-sē ittur, marrī, $n\bar{a}$ hast-killed.' The-father him-to said, ' 0 thoualways son, mymandonī, sangte jō-bārāngē nāvā ānd ad nīvā ānd. anisab art,andwhateveristhatallthinein-company mineis.Par ānand kiyānā anī khuśi āyānā uchit mattā. Bārī-kī, Butrejoicing to-doandhappy to-become proper was. Because-that, ēr nīvēr tammū mattor, uņdē pistor; sāsī khōē-māsī mattor, deadthisthybrother was, again revived; lost-having-become was, puţtōr." uņģē was-found." again

[No. 58.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖNDĪ.

(DISTRICT SEONI.)

SPECIMEN II.

Undī pulyāl badē dongute phasrē-māsī sunchī mattā. £kā-ēk tiger a-certain in-jungle lying-down sleeping was. All-of-a-sudden vallēnē allīn tān kachchul aplō dhödhuhknäl passī hattūn. many micehim their-own near holes-from having-rushed-out went. Avēhknā ārōtāl pulyāl chamkē-māt anī tānā pañjā undī allīt Theirnoise-from the-tiger startled-was and his paro onemouse parro achānak arsī hatt. Riste vāsī-kun pulyāl ad by-chance upon having-fallen went. Anger-in having-comethe-tiger that allīn jokkilē chāhē-māt. Alli ardz kīt ki, 'immā nī mouseto-kill wishing-was. The-mouse entreaty madethat, 'thou thee hikkē anī hikkē $n\bar{a}$ hūrā; nāvā jökten nīvā batī barāī towardsandme towardslook; my killing-from your whatgreatnessāyār?' Iden kēnchi-kun pulyāl allitun chhute-kit. Allī will-be? This having-heard the-tiger the-mouse-to released. The-mouse āsis sīsī itt, 'bade diyā nannā nīvā id dayātā paltā blessing giving said, 'some dayI your thiskindness-of return sēkā.' Idēn kēñchī pulyāl kaüt anī döngut hikkē will-give.' This having-heard the-tiger laughed and jungle towards chalsī-sīt. went-away.

Kuchh diyānā pajjā ad döngut-kachchul mandānvārērk phāndā Some days-of after thatjungle-near inhabitants net lägsihchī pulyāltun phande-kitur, barī-kī ad ōrknā dhörkkun bahudhā having-set the-tiger-to entrapped, becausethattheir cattle-tofrequently joksī vātūnd. Pulyāl phāndātāl pasītān sātī vallē having-killed used-to-destroy. The-tiger net-from getting-out for muchchāhē-māt par hille pasītā parrō. Pajjārāl adduhkhtāl wishing-was butnotget-out could. At-last hepain-from garjē-māyā-lāt. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$ allī badēn pulyāl chhuṭē-kīsī mattor roaring-to-be-began. That-very mousewhich the-tiger having-released was ad garjē-māyānā kēñit. Ad tanvor upkār-kiyēvārēnā lēng thatroaring heard. Itits obligation-doer-of voice

chinhē-māt anī parksõre aggā vāsī art bagā pulyāl recognized andsearching there having-arrived fellwhere the-tiger phandē-māsī mattā. \mathbf{Ad} tanvā painā palkne phāndātun entrapped-having-become was. Ititssharp teeth-with the-net pulyāltun chhute-kīsīt. katrē-kīsī Id vēsorītāl iddīsītā released. having-cut the-tiger This story-from thisthing appears ki chuddur-sō chuddur tērī dhōriyāl kām artēn tanvā-sō vallē thatsmall-from smallanimal even need falling itself-from much jorvārēnā sahāytā kiyā partā. strong-of assistancedocan.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A tiger was sleeping in a jungle when suddenly many mice rushed out of their holes close to him. The tiger was awakened through the noise, and his paw happened to fall on one of the mice. He got angry and was just going to kill the mouse when it began to be seech him, 'look at yourself and at me. How much bigger will you get from killing me?' On hearing this the tiger released the mouse. The mouse thanked him and said, 'I shall return you this kindness some day.' On hearing that the tiger laughed and went away into the jungle.

Some days afterwards, the people of the neighbourhood set a net and caught the tiger, because it had often killed their cattle. The tiger tried in vain to get out of the net, and at last it began to roar from pain. Now the very mouse which the tiger had let off heard the roar and recognized the voice of its benefactor. It found its way to where the tiger was entrapped, cut the net with its sharp teeth, and set the tiger free.

It will be seen from this story that even the smallest animals can give assistance to such as are much stronger.

To the south-west of Balaghat is the State of Khairagarh. Göndī is spoken in the north-west, towards Balaghat. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 21,690. This estimate is, however, far beyond the mark, and only 1,141 speakers were returned at the last Census of 1901.

The dialect is the same as that spoken in Bhandara, as will be seen from the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

[No. 59.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(KHAIRAGARH STATE.)

Bōrē mānvānor rand pēkor mattor. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ -pē chuddar mattor, Some man-of two sons Them-of were. the-younger was, heáplō bābon-sē 'bābā, ittur kī, dhan mandā ā-paitō nāvā vātŏ hisfather-to saidfather, that, property isthat-from mysharemattēkē, tō nākun sīm.' Ōr örkun āplö dhan bāţē-kīsītur. me-to may-be, thatgive.' Hethem-to his property divide-did. Valē diyān āyōn kē chuddar pērgāl sabtun vaisī-kun valē Many days were-not whenthe-younger 80% allhaving-taken very lak hattur, uņdē agā luchpanē hañjī-kun din khōyē-kītur. far went, andthereriotously having-gone days spend-did.

Göndi is, to some extent, also spoken in the State of Nandgaon, especially in the extreme south of the district. Local estimates give 5,000 as the number of speakers, but only 1,413 were enumerated at the Census of 1901.

The specimens received from the district were so full of blunders and miswritings that I have only been able to restore a portion of one of them. It shows that the dialect is essentially the same as that spoken in neighbouring districts such as Balaghat.

Forms such as ānār, its; ānān, I am; jiyātōn, thou killest; killī, it roared; kasūr hillam, it is not my fault, are all curious, and would be very interesting, if they were correct. Owing to the unsatisfactory state of the materials, however, it would not be safe to do more than register them.

[No. 60.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(STATE NANDGAON.)

pulli. Mang khērātā jānvar pulli vaïyūnd. Undi pahārte wood-of animals the-tiger taking-away-was. One mountain-in a-tiger. And Pulli-tīryā hattu milē-māsī-kun salāh kītun. janvar Sab council made. Tiger-near went that. joined-having-become Allanimals sēkum.' ' mākun jiyātōn vārī? Τō pārī-pārīte undī jānvar animal successively we-shall-give.' killest why? one · us Then Bhārī iānvar ānd tō ad hand. Pulli ittur ki, 'bēs and.' then 'good is.' Oldanimalwasthatwent. The-tiger saidthat, divã bhatelyana pārīvār hattur. pulli tind. Dusrō $T\bar{a}$ iānvartun hare-of day turn went. the-tiger ate. Another Those animals vātār. Dhīrē dhīrē dākā, 'mākun jōkisī ki, Bhatelya ittu killing he-will-destroy. Slowly slowly will-go, The-hare said that, · me tari-nā hille pisākā.' Tō pulli gussāte pūchhē-kīt. khuśāmad kēkā, flattery will-make, if-not not shall-live.' Then the-tiger anger-in ask-did Nikun mālum hille ki nanā sīstī? vārī-lāg dirang ki, 'ichur what-for madest? Thee-toknown not thatΙ that, 'so-much delay bhatelyal nittur vadē: ānān?' $T\bar{o}$ kar jöre-kisi rājā iangaltā and joined-making stoodam? Then the-hare hands king jungle-of kachur barā muskilte vātonā. hillam. Niyā 'kasūr javāptā, difficulty-in I-came. Thee near great' fault is-not. answered, adū-nē sarde nākun saprē māsī undī pullī Nī-lēkhātā that-indeed meeting becoming Thy-appearance-of onetigerway-in me-to phir ānān." Tō tān-sē ki, " nanā jangaltā rājā ittu nākun "Iam." Then him-from again kingthat. jungle-of saidme-to salahkīsī-kun dākā. vātonā. Nī-sē phir kisi karār shall-go. having-made Thee-with counsel I-came. again making oathmilēsīsī-kun niyā kachur vātonā; niyā sang krayā Tān-sē joined-Him-with promise having-given I-came; theewiththeenear Pulli bhārī āttur. parodal gussā hantonā.' tān māsī-kun filledbecame. The-tiger thaton-from anger I-go. having-become votu, jēkā. Kuātātigē vāykā, undī panjate tān sang 'Niyā will-kill.' Well-to brought, paw-in him will-come, une with· Thee tarktā luktā.' parō mārkāte kuāte Kuātā pāri nivā varīnā climbed on-account well-in has-hidden.' Well-of border on 3 x

ādāl mār-kītā. ānār tō dist. dharmī khālē Khūb gussāte therefrom look-did, thenanger-in hisimagebelow was-seen. Great killī agā kuāte anā dēkt. roaredandtherewell-in fell.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there lived a tiger on a mountain, and it used to carry off the animals of the forest. All the animals then came together to consult. They went to the tiger and said, 'why do you kill us? we will give you one animal every day. Said the tiger, 'well.' Now all the old animals came forward in their turn, and the tiger ate them. One day the hare's turn came, and it thought, 'he will certainly kill me. I will go very slowly and try to flatter him. If I cannot do so, I am done for.' The tiger then got angry and asked, 'why hast thou delayed so long? Doest thou not know that I am the king of the jungle?' The hare joined his hands and answered, 'it is no fault of mine. It has been very difficult to come to you. On the way I met a tiger such as you, and he said to me that he was the king of the jungle. I had to swear before I went to you that I would come back when I had consulted you. I gave him my promise before I came to you, and I am now going after having seen you.' Thereupon the tiger got angry and said, 'I will come with thee and kill him with one blow.' The hare brought him to a well and said, 'he is hiding in the well for fear of you.' The tiger mounted the platform of the well and looked down, and his image appeared in the water below. He roared in great anger and fell into the well.

Göndi is also spoken in the south-west of the district of Raipur. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 27,800, but only 7,784 were returned in 1901. The Gönds of Raipur have been dealt with in the Report of the Ethnological Committee, Nagpore, 1868, Part ii, pp. 100 and ff, Part iii, pp. 1 and ff.

The Göndi of Raipur is essentially the same as that spoken in Balaghat and it will be quite sufficient to give the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son as an illustration.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(DISTRICT RAIPUR.)

mānvān rand mark mattor. Tān-rapō $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{i}$ chidur marrī man-to twosons were. Them-in the-younger A-certain son bābōrān ittur ki, 'bābā, nivā-kachūlē jō-kuchh āplō sampat mandā that, 'father, of-you-near his-own father-to saidwhatever propertyisvātō-kīsīm.' Pher bābōrāl had nākun hōr had sampat rand bhāilkun divide.' Then thatfather thatthat me-to property twobrothers-to tō vātē-kīsitur. Vallē diyāng hannō chidur marri āplō divided. idays not-passed then Many the-younger sonhis-own par-dēste paisā-kaurī baisī-kun chalsitur. Undē hagā money having-collected foreign-country-into went-away. And there paisā-kaurī sab randībājte urē-kīsitur. Tān-rapč had āplō dēste harlotry-in squandered. That-in thathis-own money allcountry-in arsī-hatt. Pher hōn tindā-undānā dukāl vallē pharā famine having-fallen-went. Then to-him eating-and-drinking-of great greatāyā-lāt. Pher hōr börē bhalō takliph mānvān-kachūl to-become-began. Then he a-certain gooddistressman-near mānvāl rahē-māyā-lātur. Hōr sõjõr ţuŗān hañjī-kun hōr āplō to-remain-began. That goodthatboy-to his-own having-gone mannēde röhtur. $T\bar{o}$ bhusān tindātā. padding mēhtālē padding into-field swineto-graze sent. Then the-swine husks were-eating. Hōr samjē-mātur ki, 'ihunē nanā bhusān tindākā tō nāvā-bī He ' in-like-manner Ι husks will-eat then thought that, my-also tindālē nindār.' Aske bōrē mānvālōr hōn sēvor. Aske pīr will-be-filled. Then man to-him to-eat Then belly any not-gave. vāsī-kun indā-lātur ki, ' nāvōr hōr āplō sudhte bābon-igā senses-on his-own having-come to-say-began that, · my father-near hebachölē vallē nōkar-chākark saring tintor; an nanā hagā karrū I here servants muchbreadare-eating; and hungry many bābōrān-kachūl undē sāntonā. Nanā tēchchī-kun handākā āplō I having-arisen father-near and am-dying. will-go my-own indākā "ē nivā-karūm ki. bābō. Bhagvant-iga undē hōn $nan\bar{a}$ will-say that, " O \boldsymbol{I} God-against and of-you-near to-him father, nıvā-igā kitonā, nanā nivor marrī Nanā pāp indālē jōg hille. of-you-near did, Ι your to-be-called fit am-not. I sin son 3 x 2

mandākā."' sarīkō nökar Pher hagadal tēchchikun āplō like will-remain." Then from-there having-arisen his-own -a-servant bāborān-hikē hōr hattor. father-at he went.

A few speakers are also found in the State of Sarangarh. Local estimates give 963 as the number of speakers; 855 were returned in 1901.

The dialect of Sarangarh does not much differ from that spoken in Raipur, as will be seen from the short specimen which follows.

Note forms such as tatli, to bring; māsi, was, became; mañjī, it was, etc.

[No. 62.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖŅDĪ.

(SARANGARH STATE.)

vallē V \bar{o} rkUndi sērā ādmīnā mark mattörk. āpaste sab One oldman-of severalsons were. They with-each-other allÖnörk bābal vallē larhāī āndurk. ōrkun samjhē-kītur diang Theirfather muchthem-to persuade-did quarrelling were. daysAnt-kalte phēr batē kām vāyō. ōr tanvā mark-kun katiyānā but resultwas-not. Death-time-at he his-own sons-to sticks-of anytatli hukum Undē sītur. ōrkun undī bīrā tanvā munne tab bundle before to-bring order And then them-to his-own gave. onejörte tēn urihtalē hukum sītur. Sabtun urihchi ballē greatforce-with it (bundle) to-break ordergave. The-whole to-break hurturk, phēr batē-kām-vāyō. Bārīk kativāng kachul-gasē-kisī butany-result-was-not. the-sticks closely-and-compactly endeavoured, Becauseundī jāgā bandhē-māsī; uṇḍē undī ādamīnā jorte adēn urīhtanā tied-up-were; strength-by place one man-of thatto-break oneTēnā-pajjā muskīl mañjī. ōnōṛk bābal bīrātun chhutē-kiālē That-after father difficultit-was. theirthe-bundle separate-to-make sītur; undē undī undī marrin undī katiyā hukum undī sītur. Undē stickordergave; oneoneson-to one And one gave. adē vakhatte ōṛkun tēn urīhtālē hukum sītur; ōkōhk jhank time-at them-to that orderthatto-break gave; each-one men ٠ē sahajte urihturk. Tab bābal kaţiyātun ōnōṛk ittur, nāvā the-sticks ease-with broke. Then their father 0 said, my ikatthātā jōr idērkam marrilk, hurāt; tēn-sātī baskēnē imāţ sons, union-of strengththis-for in-like-manner see; when you

mītānit-	lēkhā	undē-jāgā	mandākīţ	bōrē	ādmī	mīkun	batiyē	duhkh
on-friendly	y-terms	together	will-live	any	man	you-to	any	unhappiness
sīōŗk.	Phēr	jab	larhāīte	imāţ	ala	ag	āykīţ	mīyā
give-not.	But	when	quarrel-by	you	sepa	rate	will-rema	in your
bairilk	mikun	tīndānu	rk.'					
enemies	you	will- $deve$	our.'		,			

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

An old man had many sons who were always quarrelling. Their father often admonished them, but in vain. When he felt death to be near he asked his sons to bring a bundle of sticks before him and ordered them to break it. They all tried, but in vain, because all the sticks were tied together, and it was accordingly difficult for a man to break them. Then the father ordered them to unfasten the bundle and gave each son one stick and asked them to break them. Now they were all able to do so without difficulty. Then their father said, 'O my sons, see what strength there is in unity. Therefore so long as you live together on friendly terms nobody will be able to do you any harm. But if you quarrel your enemies will undo you.'

In the State of Patna Göndi is now practically extinct. Local estimates give 130, and the returns of the Census of 1901 only 4, as the number of speakers.

The Göndi of Patna is rapidly giving way to Oriyā, and the influence of that language is seen in forms such as $b\bar{a}bar \cdot m\bar{a}n$, fathers; $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}r$, of the uncle, etc., used in the Göndi dialect. The change of v to b in words such as $b\bar{a}t$, it came, is also due to the same influence.

Note also the change of a to \bar{e} in $m\bar{e}nt\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I am.

'I' is anā, and the numerals above 'two' are Aryan.

For further details the short specimen which follows should be consulted.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(STATE PATNA.)

Ēţi undī ēk kūralte ēyar ūtur. **Echarchakā** brukāl sē Goat oneone rivulet-in waterdrank. Then one tiger thatkūralte Kūral-parte ēyar undā-bāt. brukāl ēyar ūtur. rivulet-to waterto-drink-came. Rivulet-upper-part-in the-tiger waterdrank. **Echarchakā** ētitun brukāl ' bārkyā hurtur bēhatur ēyar gundāl Then the-goat-to the-tiger saw andsaid, · why muddy waterkiya-lātōnī? Ni gundāl nā-hikē ēyar bāi-lātā.' Ēti to-make-beginnest? Thymuddywaterme-near to-come-began.' The-goat bēhatur, 'hē brukāl. kūrul-dūnite mēntonā. Bāhān-kishi hat · gundā said, tiger, rivulet-lower-part-in I-am. What-making thatmuddy ēyar bāi-lātā? Brukāl ētitun bēhatur, ' bachharē ātanē water to-come-began?' The-tiger the-goat-to said, 'year becoming nākun rāngil-ātonī, anā kēnstānā. Ēti uttar 'hē sēt, prabo, me abusing-wast, I have-heard.' 0 The-goat replygave, Sir, anā-tō chha mās ātonā. Nikun bāhān-kishi rāngtānā?' Brukál I-indeed sixmonths Thee am. what-doing abused?' The-tiger bēhatur, 'imā hile rängten itē ni bābar, hale itē $_{
m ni}$ dādar said, thou notif-abusedest then thyfather, notthen thygrandfather rāngsi-mandānur. Dand nikun sēkān, nikun tindākān. abusing-may-be. Punishment thee-to will-give, theewill-eat.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A goat was once drinking water in a river, when a tiger came to the river to drink water. The tiger stood higher up in the river. It saw the goat and said, 'why doest thou make the water muddy? The muddy water is coming down from thee to me.' Said the goat, 'O tiger, I stand below you in the river. How can the water flow from me to thee?' Then the tiger said to the goat, 'I am told that thou didst abuse me a year ago.' Answered the goat, 'I am only six months old, how can I have abused thee?' Said the tiger, 'if thou didst not abuse me, then thy father did, or if not, then it must have been thy grandfather. I will punish thee and eat thee.'

Göndī is also spoken in the Kanker State, especially in the north-west. According to local estimates, the number of speakers is 46,631. The corresponding Census figures were 39,000 in 1891 and 37,399 in 1901.

The dialect spoken in Kanker in some characteristics agrees with the various forms of Göndī current in Bastar, Chanda, and the neighbourhood.

R becomes l in $l\bar{o}n$, a house, and the initial s in the verb $s\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, to give, is replaced by h; thus, $h\bar{\imath}m$, give; $h\bar{e}v\bar{o}r$, he did not give.

The numeral for 'two' is irur before masculine nouns.

 $Bal\bar{e}\ diy\bar{a}\ \bar{a}yv\bar{a}$ matta, many days did not pass, seems to contain a negative participle $\bar{a}yv\bar{a}$. Compare the so-called Mariā of Bastar. It is, however, also possible that $\bar{a}yv\bar{a}$ is simply miswritten for $\bar{a}y\bar{o}$, the regular negative third person singular neuter of $\bar{a}y\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, to become. The specimen has not been well prepared, and several points remain doubtful. The beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows will, however, show that the general character of the dialect is the same as in the neighbouring districts to the north and north-west.

[No. 64.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(KANKER STATE.)

Bōrē mānēkun irur pēkōr mantor. Un-garā hudilör bābō-A-certain man-to two sons were. Them-from the-younger fatherharān kattur, 'ai būbā, dhante tūs nāvā nāhun him.' jō hõ said, Ohfather. wealth-in vohatshare my may-be me-to give.' Achōy-pahar dhantun tusītur. Balē diyā āyvā mattā, That-very-moment wealthdistributed. Many days passing-not were, hudilör pēkor sabōv dhantun bhūmtun baley ōtur ani agā the-younger son all-even wealthanother land-to took andthere kāmte burī din bītē-kisōr dhantun māhchī-sītur. Māldun work-in baddays wealth having-squandered-gave. spending All-wealth mähchitur. aske ad dēśte dukār artā, garib aniōr ātur. wasted, then thatcountry-in famine fell, andbecame. poor Ad•ē bhūmte bōrur mānēt-igā õr huñjtur, jō paddi nēlingnigā ōnē land-in That-very man-near lived, who himswine fields-to röhtur. Ör mānē parktun badēn tijor-matta paddi, 'potā pajihkā, sent. T'hat. man husks-to whicheating-were will-fill, swine, ' belly iñjī irādā kīs-mantor. saying intention making-was.

In Chanda and Bastar the language of the Gonds begins to assume a somewhat different character. All the various forms which have been dealt with in the preceding pages are essentially identical, and the local variations are comparatively unimportant. In Chanda and Bastar, on the other hand, we begin to find several traces of the influence of the neighbouring Teligu. This influence goes on increasing as we pass into the Madras Presidency, and we here find dialects which can be characterized as links between the two languages.

The Gond dialects of the districts in question are known under various names such as Gondī, Gattu, Mariā, and Kōi. Such names do not, however, connote various dialects. The so-called Kōi of the Madras Presidency is, for example, different from the Kōi of Bastar and Chanda. On the other hand, the Gōndī of Chanda is essentially identical with the dialects known as Gattu, Kōi, and Mariā in the same district. It will, therefore, be necessary to deal with the various dialects in geographical succession.

All the dialects in question have, however, some characteristic features in common, and it will prove convenient to point out some of them before proceeding to deal with the dialects in detail.

An l is substituted for the initial r in $l\bar{o}n$, house, and some other words. We have already found the same state of affairs prevailing in Kanker. The same is the case with the initial h in $h\bar{i}m$, Standard $s\bar{i}m$, give.

Greater importance must be attached to the fact that there are separate forms for the dative and the accusative. The details will be found in what follows. In this place it will be sufficient to point out that the dialects in question in this respect differ from ordinary Gōndī and agree with Telugu.

With regard to numerals it should be borne in mind that ordinary Göndi apparently only possesses the neuter forms. *Irul*, two, however, is used in Hoshangabad in addition to the neuter rand. Similar forms occur in the dialects now under consideration. Thus, *irul*, two, in the so-called Göndi of Chanda; *irur* in the so-called Mariā of Bastar; *iruvuru* in the so-called Gaṭṭu and in the Kōi of the Madras Presidency.

In the latter dialect we also find two different forms of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person, viz., mannada, we, when the person addressed is included, and manna, we, when the person addressed is excluded. Mananu, we, in the so-called Gattu and Kōi of Chanda seems to correspond to the latter form. My materials are not, however, sufficient for discussing the state of affairs in the other dialects in question.

Mīru, you, the ordinary Telugu form, occurs in the so-called Gattu and Kōi of Chanda and in the Madras Presidency.

The neuter demonstrative pronoun assumes forms which correspond to those usual in Telugu. Thus I have noted $d\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ or $d\bar{a}nv\bar{a}$, her, in Chanda and Bastar; $d\bar{a}ni$, her, in the Kōi of the Madras Presidency.

It will be remembered that the tenses of the ordinary Gōndī verb were of two classes, differing in the formation of plural forms. Compare $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{o}m$, we did; $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{o}ram$, we were doing. It has already been pointed out that $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{o}ram$, we were doing, is formed from a noun of agency $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{o}r$, those who were doing, by adding a personal termination am. In the dialects now under consideration there is nothing corresponding to such forms.

The personal terminations of verbs are also, to some extent, different. We shall in this place only note that the second person singular usually ends in $\bar{\imath}n$ or $\bar{\imath}ni$, and the

second person plural in *īr* or *īri*. Thus, dāntīn, thou goest; intīr, you say, in the Gōṇḍī of Bastar.

Further particulars must be reserved for the ensuing pages where the various dialects will be dealt with in geographical order.

Several languages are spoken in the Bastar State. The main Aryan language of the State is Hal^abī, which has, in this Survey, been dealt with in connexion with Marāṭhī. It is a very mixed form of speech, and there can be little doubt that the Hal^abas originally spoke a dialect of Gōṇḍī.

Of other Aryan languages we find Oriyā with its dialect Bhatrī, and Chhattīsgarhī. The rest of the population of Bastar speak Telugu and various forms of Gōndī.

Telugu extends from the border of the Bijji and Sunkam Talukas on the Sabari, along the range of the Bila Dilas to the Indravati, and follows that river as far as its confluence with the Godavari.

The Mārīs or Mariās are the most numerous of the various Gōṇḍ tribes in Bastar. They inhabit the Chintalnar, Bhupalpatnam, and Kutru Talukas, with the greater part of Vijapur. In the west they are also known as Goṭṭis. They inhabit the denser jungles, while Telugu is the language of the better and more civilized classes. Near Karikote their territory crosses the Indravati and takes a circuitous route through the so-called Ubujmard to Bhamragarh on the Indravati. In the north-west of the state the Mariās are found together with ordinary Gōṇḍs, and their territory extends into the neighbouring districts of Chanda. In the south the Mariās meet with the Kōis, who extend over the eastern frontier of the state into Vizagapatam.

The Gonds proper are found in the north-east, and, together with Marias, in the north-west of the state.

The Parjis will be separately dealt with below.

Specimens of all these dialects have been forwarded from the district and will be reproduced in what follows. They are all far from being satisfactory. The materials sent in for the use of the Survey are not the originals, but copies from them, and the copies have been made by people who did not know the dialect in question. They therefore abound in mistakes, and I have not been able to correct all of them.

The so-called Gondi of Bastar was reported for this Survey as spoken by 60,660 individuals. The corresponding figures in 1901 were 89,763.

The specimen forwarded from the district has been so carelessly prepared that I have only succeeded in restoring a small portion of it. The remarks which follow are based on it and on a list of words which was too corrupt to be reproduced.

Initial l is substituted for r, and h for s, in words such as $l\bar{o}n$, house; $l\bar{o}ht\bar{o}k$, he sent; $h\bar{i}m\bar{t}u$, give; $h\bar{a}yat\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, I die.

Rk seems to become k in plural forms; thus, δk , Standard δrk , they, he (honorific); $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{\delta}r$, honorific $k\bar{\imath}t\delta k$, he did. It is, however, possible that k is only miswritten for rk.

The dative ends in ki or ku; thus, marrinki, to the son; godduku, to the cattle. It is often confounded with the accusative; thus, vorunu, to them.

The ablative ends in $ag\bar{a}d\bar{a}$; thus, $dhant-ag\bar{a}d\bar{a}$, from the property.

The plural seems to be formed as in ordinary Gondi. Thus, padding, swine; pēkur, sons. The list of words gives forms such as mankāl-manē, men.

The following are the personal pronouns,-

 $nann\bar{a}$, I nimma, thou $v\bar{o}r$, he ad, she, it. $n\bar{a}v\bar{a}$, my $n\bar{v}v\bar{a}$, thy $vonv\bar{a}$, his $d\bar{a}nv\bar{a}$, its. $n\bar{a}ku$, to me $n\bar{v}ku$, to thee $v\bar{o}nku$, to him $t\bar{a}ku$, to it.

Verbs.—Forms such as $h\bar{a}yet\bar{o}n\bar{a}n$, I am dying, correspond to Standard $s\bar{a}yit\bar{o}n\bar{a}$. The present tense of finite verbs is, however, slightly different. Thus, $d\bar{a}nt\bar{a}n$, I go; $d\bar{a}nt\bar{i}n$, thou goest; $d\bar{a}nt\bar{o}r$, he goes; $d\bar{a}nt\bar{a}$, she goes; $d\bar{a}nt\bar{i}r$, you go; $d\bar{a}nt\bar{o}k$, they go. The other plural forms do not occur in my materials.

The past tense is inflected in the same way. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}n$, I did; $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{o}r$, he did; $\bar{a}rtu$, it fell. $B\bar{a}rd$, it becomes, is probably miswritten for $b\bar{a}rtu$.

Future forms are dākān, I shall go; ketākān, I shall say.

The imperative is formed as in ordinary Gōṇḍī. Thus, karisāţ, cause ye to put on; kēmā, do not do. Note hīmṭū, give.

Negative forms are $punn\bar{o}n$, I do not know; $s\bar{e}v\bar{o}r$, he did not give; $hann\bar{o}r$, he did not go. In $h\bar{e}y\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$, thou didst not give, a past negative tense is formed in the same way as in Kui.

An infinitive is $m\bar{e}hk\bar{a}$, to feed. The conjunctive participle is regularly formed. Thus, $k\bar{s}s\bar{s}$, having done; $t\bar{e}ds\bar{s}$, having arisen; $h\bar{u}ds\bar{s}$, having seen.

The dialect seems, on the whole, to agree with the so-called Mariā of Bastar, which will be dealt with below. It is not, however, possible to base any further conclusions on such imperfect materials as those at my disposal.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

(STATE BASTAR.)

Bönē köitönör raṇḍ pēkur mattur. Īrunāhī hudīlōk pēkāl bābōhārān Some man-of Both-of the-younger son twosons were. the-father-to 'hē kettor, bābō, dhant-agādā bachone bard(bartu?) nāvā tāku nāku. said, father, property-from whatbecomes that me-to Agāhāhī voru vorunu apņā hīmtū.' dhan tusītur. Badē diyāh bhōātu give.' Then he them-to his property divided. Some days afterhudīlōk pēkāl jammā dhan **orpāvē** kīsī bēkēn pēsī the-younger son all property together having-made awayhaving-taken satur, phēr agāhāhī kisibinā-ĩhahiyā kīsī dhan turīhsitör. harlots-of-company (?) went, andthen having-made wasted. property Vōk annī turihsitör aske ad bumte mahag ārtu; vōr garīb Heallwasted then that country-in famine fell; he destitute Vor ātōk. hajī bōnōn-agā mattök. Vōru võnu āpnā nēlte became. Hehaving-gone somebody-with stayed. Hehimhis field-in paddīng mēhkā löhtök. Bōrē tānu bārāv hēvor. Aske ōnu to-feed swine sent. Anyone him-toanything gave-not. Thenhim-to chēt ārttu, aske kettör, voru 'nāvā bābōn-agā bachōnē kõitõnā fell, then hesaid, sense father-with 'my how-many men-of tīdānālē bēd annõ gātō; nannā karvā hāetonān. Nannā eating-after foodmuchrice; I with-hunger die. I tēdsī bābōn-agā dākān, tān ketākān, "hē anibābō, having-arisen father-near will-go, " O andhim-to will-say, father, nannā ispurānā högte nīvā-y munne pāp kītān. Nannā āpnā pēkāl Ι God-of before thy-also in-presence sindid. I your sonāivānku ardvõ ātān. Nāku köitönē-sē võrunā varā-parō kīsīm."' being-for unworthyMe became. servants-from one-of likeness-on make."

It has already been mentioned that the so-called Maria has been returned from the following districts:—

U							Estim	ated :	number.	Census	of 1901.
Central I	Provi	ces							104,340	•••	59,749
Chhi	indwa	ıra					10,000				
Char	nda					٠.	31,500			9,655	
Bast	ar						62,840			50,091	
Raig	our						•••			3	
Assam.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•••	•••	127
		10				T	OTAL		104,340		59,876

It has also been pointed out that the so-called Maria of Chhindwara is not, in any respect, different from the current Gondi of the district. The same is also the case in Bastar and Chanda.

The Revd, S. Hislop derives Maria from mara, a tree, and remarks that the Marias of Bastar are also called Jharias which would mean the same thing. In the west of Bastar they are also called Gotte, which name is also used in Chanda. Compare below.

The Marias are, so far as we can judge, simply the Gonds living in the jungles, and there is no reason for distinguishing them as a separate tribe with a dialect of their own.

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HISLOP, REV. STEPHEN, -Papers relating to the Aboriginal Tribes of the Central Provinces. Edited with notes and preface, by R. Temple. 1866, Part i, pp. 7 and ff.; p. 22; Vocabulary, Part ii, pp. 1

[LYALL, SIE A. J.],-Report of the Ethnological Committee on Papers laid before them and upon Examination of Specimens of Aboriginal Tribes brought to the Jubbulpore Exhibition of 1866-67. Nagpore, 1863. Part ii, p. 40; Vocabulary, Part iii, pp. 1 and ff.

The territory within which Maria is spoken in the Bastar State has been defined on page 529 above. Mariā and Gondī are spoken beyond the frontier of the State in the north-east of Chanda.

The Mariā of Bastar seems to be almost identical with the ordinary Gondi of the district.

The pronunciation is the same; compare $l\bar{o}n$, house; $l\bar{o}ht\bar{o}r$, he sent; $h\bar{\imath}m!\bar{u}$, give.

The usual plural suffix is ku, thus, marri, son; marku, sons; pal-ku, teeth. I have not found any instances of the use of the suffixes or and ng, but there is no reason for supposing that they are wanting.

The accusative ends in n and the dative in ke or ku, but the two cases are continually confounded. Thus, $b\bar{a}b\bar{o}n$, to the father; $n\bar{a}ku$, me, to me.

Other cases are formed as in Göndi. Thus, lota dhan-mal, the property of the house; $r\bar{a}jte$, in the country. Note muttentodi, with harlots, and compare Tamil $\bar{a}du$, with.

Numerals.—The first ten numerals are,—

1. undī.

6. āru.

2. irur, neut. rend.

7. sāt, yēdu.

3. mūr.

8. āth, yemmidi.

4. nāldu, nālgu.

9. nava, ermu, tommidi.

5. aindu.

10. dasu, pad.

Āru, six; yēdu, seven; yemmidi, eight; tommidi, nine, and pad, ten, are the usual forms in Telugu, and are probably borrowed from that language. Ermu, nine, seems to correspond to Kanarese ombhattu, Tulu ormba.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns are the same as in the Gondi dialect of Bastar. We do not, however, find forms such as vok, they, vor or or being used instead. 'We' is mayo and mama, and 'our' is mava. The corresponding forms of the second person are mirad, you; mīvā, your.

Other pronouns are ver, this, neuter id; bor, who? bed and bata, what?

Verbs.—The personal terminations are :-

Sing. 1. n Plur. 1. $\bar{o}m$. 2. $\bar{\imath}(n)$ 2. $\bar{\imath}r$. 3. m. $\bar{e}r$, $\bar{o}r$ 3. m. $\bar{o}r$.

3. f. and n. \bar{a} , u

Thus, mendēn, I am; mendī, thou art; mendēr, he is; mende, it is; mattān, I was; aṭtī, thou cookedest; mattīn, thou wast; kettōr, he said, they said; ārttā, it arose; yēsītōm, we threw; hoktīr, you killed. Note vāsī, he came.

Future forms are rehtākān, I shall strike; rehtākīn, thou wilt strike; rehtānōr, he will strike. Dātān, I will go; kettitān, I will say, are forms of the present, and mendēbān, I might be, is half Oriyā.

The negative verb is regular. Thus, $kiy\bar{o}n$, I did not; $\bar{v}v\bar{v}n$, thou gavest not; $k\bar{e}v\bar{o}r$, he did not; $\bar{a}y\bar{o}$, it came not; $v\bar{v}t$ -ma, don't run; udu-ma, don't sit.

There are, however, also a negative infinitive and a negative participle. Thus, ivā-mattōr, to-give-not-was, he did not give; māyvā-ōre, not being. Compare Kui.

The conjunctive participle is regularly formed. Instead of the final i we, however, also find u. Thus, han ji-man ji and han ju-man ju, having-gone-having-become, having gone.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

[No. 66.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

SO-CALLED MARIA DIALECT.

(STATE BASTAR.)

marku Tān Bona-i irur mattor. hudilā marrī tān bābōn Some-one-of tvoosons were. Hisyounger his father-to sonbābō, bechör kettör. ٠ō mende ทลิ. mālmattā tūsī hīmţū.' said. father. what is my propertydividing give.' Agātīnā vonke hitor. ōr tūsī Jēl āyō-ē hudilā marrī Thereafter dividing him-to hegave. Long not-was the-young sonlōtā dhan-māl poisi lakk bhūmi vittor, aur aggā muttentodi house-of property taking far country went, andthere women-with narsī māl-mattā gavāh-kitor. Ōrē sab māl-mattā gavah-kisī living squandered. property Heallproperty squandering pohchi ad rājte hitor, karuv árttā, aur dondāl ātōr. having-spent thatcountry-in gave, famine arose, and poor became. Ōr hañju mañiu adē rājte varron-aggā mendēr. Hehaving-gone that-very having-become country-in one-near stayed. \mathbf{Or} ōnku vēdāte paddī mēhtā löhtör. \mathbf{Or} nēlāt chārā paddī tintā field-in Hehim swine to-feed sent. Hegoodhusks swine atepōţā agā hanjor tān pajī tintor. Aur tān bēnōr ivā-mattor. hisbelly theregoing having-filled ate. And himanyonegave-not. Achun-madde surtā artu. Vend-or kettör, 'nā bābon-aggā bachōr That-after sensefell. Then-he said, 'my father-near how-many mānētā tindān-agādā āgar ātā, aur mayō karne dolātom. men-of eating-after remaining is, andwehunger-with die. bābōn-aggā Nannā tendī $n\bar{a}$ dātān aur võnku hañj-mañj kettitān, arising my father-near will-go and him-to having-gone will-say, "ō bābō, nannā bhagvāntun mānē-māion, aur nī-mune pāp kītān. " O father, Ι Godobeying-was-not, and thee-before sindid. Nannā nī marri kettān-lē āiōn. Νī naukarī-lē $n\bar{a}ku$ kim." I thyson saying-for am-not. Thy service-to me make." Agātīnā tān bābon-agā attor. V $\bar{o}r$ jēk mattor, tama bābō Thereafter his father-near went. Hefar was, his father jīvā ūrī-mañjī kitör, aur mirtí vāsī gudugātun urungi having-seen compassion made, and running coming neck-to falling burtor. Tanmarri kettör, ٠ō bābō, nannā bhagvāntun mānē-māyvāore said, kissed. Hisson 0 ' father, Z God obeying-not-being

kitān. nī-mune pāp Nannā nī marrī kettān-lē āiōn.' Vende vor thee-before sindid. I thy son saying-for am-not. Againthatbābō tan naukarīn kettör. 'sabte nēlōt gisīr võn kerpahā, 'all-in father hisservant-to said, goodclothhimcause-to-put-on, kaide $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{ar{a}}$ aur kālde aur erpung kerpahā. Tińji-mańji bērkāte and hand-on ring andfoot-on shoes put. Having-eaten merriment-in mantān. $N\bar{a}$ marri doli-mañjī, badaktor: māi-mattor. vende doroktor.' will-be. Myson having-died, lived: lost-was, againwas-found.' Vende ōr bērkā attor. Then they became. merry

Vonbiriyā marrī vēdāte mattor. $L\bar{o}n$ hērē yēvtōr dolkanēkānā Hisbigsonfield-in House was. near came music ēndānā kēnitor. tān Aur lōtōr naukarin vareni karingi puchhēdancing heard. And hishouse-of servant one calling askkītōr, 'id bātā?' $\nabla \bar{o} \mathbf{r}$ kettör. ʻnī tamur vātor. nī bābō nēlā this did, what?' Hesaid, 'thy brothercame, thyfather wellnēlōtā attor, dorki hattor.' Vend-or alā-māsī lōn goodcooked, being-found went.' Then-he angry-becoming house oditonan(?) kēvor. man Achan-mēnde tan bābō mānāh-kis to-enter(?) mind did-not. That-after his father entreaty-making urtor. Vande tan bābon kettör. 'huṛā, īchōr varsā nannā Then came-out. hisfather-to 'lo, he-said, these-many Ι years nīku sēvā kītān. Bechutē-nē nī māţātun pēlā-kivon. Aur thee-to service did. Ever-even thyword break-did-not. And bechuţē-nē tanāke nāku mendā īvīn, nannā mittöde astirte stillme-to ever-even goat gavest-not, I friends-with merry mendebān. Vende nī marrī mirkilötän-tödsī nidhantun tītōr, bechute might-be. Againthyharlots-joining sonthyproperty ate, whenvāsī achutē-nē nēlōtādi attī.' Bābō kettör. ٠ō marri, came then-indeed good-thing cookedest.' 00 The-father said, son, nimmā nā-tōde dinnāl mendī. Bēd nāvā ad nīvā. Vande thoume-with always art. What minethatthine. Butberkāte mandānā nēlotā, bārkīā vēr nī tamur doli-mañjī, vende merry to-be good, because this thybrother dead-having-been, again badaktör: māi-mattor, doroktor.' lined: lost-was, was-found.'

Proceeding from Bastar towards the west we find Mariā and Gōṇḍī spoken in Chanda.

At the Census of 1901 Gondi was returned as spoken by 75,146 individuals. Local estimates give 100,000, and in the Rough List the number was approximately put down as 96,500.

Speakers are found in every town and village in the district, but are most numerous east of the Wainganga, especially in the north. The Gonds speak Gondi among themselves, Telugu, Marāṭhī, or Hindī, with strangers. Telugu is the local language in the south, and the Gonds are there known as Kois and Gattus.

The Gönds of Chanda have been described in the Report of the Ethnological Committee. Nagpore, 1868. Part ii, pp. 8 and ff.; Part iii, pp. 1 and ff. (vocabulary).

The specimen printed below is to some extent mixed up with Aryan words and forms. The nature of the dialect is, however, quite clear and in most particulars, agrees with the Gondi of Bastar.

Pronunciation.—We find l corresponding to Standard Göndi r in $l\bar{o}t$ -lop \bar{o} , Standard $r\bar{o}t$ -rap \bar{o} , into the house. 'Give,' on the other hand, is sim and not $h\bar{i}m$ as in Bastar.

Final r is often dropped; thus, $matt\bar{o}$ and $matt\bar{o}r$, he was.

Nouns.—The two genders are sometimes confounded. Thus, $idu\ mar\bar{\imath}$ — $\bar{o}n$, this son (neuter)—to-him (masculine); $\bar{o}n\bar{a}\ b\bar{a}b\bar{o}$, instead of $\bar{o}n\bar{o}r\ b\bar{a}b\bar{o}$, his father; $badu\ v\bar{a}t\bar{o}$ $v\bar{a}t\bar{o}r$, which share (neuter) comes (masculine).

There are separate forms for the dative and the accusative. Thus, $b\bar{a}b\bar{o}n$, the father (acc.); $b\bar{a}b\bar{o}n-ku$ and $b\bar{a}b\bar{o}neke$, to the father. The two cases are, however, often used promiscuously. We also find forms such as $manky\bar{a}l$, instead of $manky\bar{a}n$, to the men. Compare the dative suffix $l\bar{a}$, $l\bar{e}$, l in Marāthī.

I have noted the following numerals, varol and undi, one; ivur and rend, two; nālu, four.

Pronouns.—The following personal pronouns occur in the texts:—

$nan(\bar{a})$, I	nimē, thou	$\bar{o}r$, he	ad(u), she.
<i>nākūn</i> , me		ōnu, ōnkun, him	
$n\bar{a}ku$, to me		ōnku, to him	dānku, to her.
$n\bar{a}(v\bar{o}r)$, $n\bar{a}v\bar{a}$, my	$n\bar{\imath}(v\bar{a})$, thy	ōnā, his	dānā, her.
nomōţ, we	nimēţ, you	or, they	

Other pronouns are idu, this; $tanv\bar{a}$, own; badu, what? $\bar{A}n\bar{e}$, by him, occurs in one place, and is probably due to Aryan influence.

Verbs.—The personal terminations are the same as in the so-called Mariā of Bastar. There are, however, no instances of the second person plural. Thus, sāntān, I die; dākān, I shall go; mantī, thou art; ittōr and ittur, he gave; mattā, it was; kikōm, we shall make; mattōr, they were. Irregular are kintā, I was doing; kitōr-mattā, has made, without change for person. Note also kiyōnā, I might make; māsī, he was.

Verbal nouns are $k\bar{e}p$ - $l\bar{e}$, in order to keep; $inal\bar{a}$, to say; $kharchi-kit\bar{a}$ - $pajj\bar{a}$, after spending.

Note tétor, arising; tijon mato, (the swine) were eating, etc.

The negative verb is formed by adding *hile* to a verbal noun ending in \bar{a} and adding the personal terminations. Thus, $tend\bar{a}-hil\bar{e}n$, I did not break; $iy\bar{a}-hilv\bar{\imath}$, thou didst not give; $iy\bar{a}-hile$, he did not give.

The Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows will be sufficient to show the general character of the dialect.

[No. 67.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖŅDĪ.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

Bōr mankyān ivur pēkūr mattor. Ōn-āgā undī chudur Some one man-to two sons were. Them-among the-younger bāhōn ittor, 'bā, badu mālē vātō nāku vātōr adu the-father-to said. father, whatproperty shareme-to comes that khub mālmatā vātō-kisī sim.' Mang ōr ōn-āgā ittor. Mang give.' Then him-with allpropert y parts-making gave. Then jamā-kisī vali chudur marī lak tīr etkā sarva hottor. ō days the-younger 801 alltogether-making very far few went, and udi-kitor, tanvā bhāgya kharch-kitor. Mang agā bhu ānē samdur there much spend-did, hisshare wasted. Then by-him allmulkin phērsō māhāg artā. kharchi-kitā-pajjā ad Māhāgan-pāī ōnkū spent-made-after that country-to heavy famine fell. Famine-on-account-of him-to Aske ōr ad nātēnāl varol adchan artā. bhale mankyān kachul Then thatdifficulty fell. hevillage-from one goodman near mattor. Ōr örkun ōnā padī kēplē tanvā vāvute hoñji löhattör. having-gone him his to-keep stayed. Heswinehisfield-in sent. padi tökrén tijon mato tān pajjā ōr pīr nīhitōr, ihin Aske önkü husks eating that he belly filled, swine were on Then him-to iyā-hile. bor ōnkū batāl Mang ājhuk ōru suddhin vāttā, him-to anything gave-not. Then it-appeared, but anyone hesense lōt-lopō bachuk vāsi ittor, 'nā bābonā mankyāl sārī porā 'my father's house-in how-many said, men-to onhaving-come bread karvasī sāntān. Nan tētēr āplē · bābōneke ānīk nan dākān mantā, I arising andI hunger-with die. my father-to will-go is, " ō intān, bābō, nan pēndā virudh νō nivā mune ānīk inkō pāp. I God-of against and him-to " O father, and thee before say, sinsarē-hille. inala nanā Tanor kitor-matā. Indikēţāl nī marī undī I worthy-not. Henceforth thyto-say Your-own onedone-have. 80nirā." bāboneke hottor. chākarīn dhāt nākūn ōr uchchī tan Mang Then father-to like keep." hehaving-arisen his went. servant hudsī mattor ichōt-lopō ōnā bābō ōnō pīt-lopō Mang or lang father him having-seen that-in his belly-in Then he far 2008 dzōmb-mattōr gundgāt ōnā dayā vātā νō ōr-ē vittōr ōnā ΥŌ felland his his neck-on and he-indeed compassion cameran3 z

tōdī burtör. Mang marionkū ittor, 'bābō, pēndā virudh nivā mouth kissed. Then the-son him-to said, 'father, God-of againstandthee mune nanā pāp kitor-matā, νō inkētāl nī marī inala nanā sarē before Isin done-have, henceforth thy and80n to-say I hile.' Par bābō mankyāl vēhtor, 'chōkoṭnā āngadē āplō tatan-kēī. not.' But the-father his men-to said, cloth'good bring-put-on, kaide ō ōnā muddā dossā kālkne õ jōdā dossā. Mang nomõt and hishand-on ring put andfeet-on, shoes put. Then we tiñjī khuśi kikōm. Bat-kā-bād idu nāvā marī sās-hottā, having-eaten merry will-make. Because this my child dead-was, ōn malsī jivā ātā: ō davdē-māsī mattor, ōr sāpdē-māsī.' him-to again life came; and lost-having-become he-was, he found-was.' Aske ōr khusi-kitūr. they Then merry-made.

Adu ghatkāte ōnōr pharsar marī vāvutē mattor. Mang ōr vāsī That time-at his olderson field-in was. Then he having-come lot-karum vātor, or vājā õ yēndmād kēistor. Aske mankyāl-loptō house-near came, hemusicanddancing heard. Then men-among varūn kēitor. ōn pus-kitūr, ʻidu batal manta?' Ōr ōnku vēhtör one called, him ask-did, this what is ? ' Hehim-to said kī. ' nivor tamūr vāsī mattō, νō ŏr nivā bābōnkū 'thy younger-brother having-come that, was, and hethy father-to sukhne bhētō mattor, in-kartā ōrē phērā jēvan kisi-mattā.' Aske safely met was, that-reason-for hebigfeast having-done-is.' Then ōr sāng-āsī lopō hondā-hile. Ādēlottor ŏnŏr bābō palāte angry-becoming insidewent-not. Therefore his father outside vāsī ōnü samji-kitor. Par ōr bābōtōdō uttar badkator. having-come him entreat-did. Buthethe-father-to answersaid. 'hudā, nanā ichung varsā nivā chākrī kintā. nivā pōlō nanā ·lo, I so-many years thy service did, thyorderI baskē-hī tēņdā-hilēn. Par nanâ nāvā sangin barābar khusi-kiyönā ever broke-not. ButI my friends withmerry-might-make nākun baskē-nē ijī nimē chudu sātrī iyā-hilvī. Vō ōr nivā sampat saying thou me-to ever young goat gavest-not. And he thy wealth budi-kitor, rāndēs barābar ōr \mathbf{ir} nivā marī vātor. aske nimē spend-did, that harlots withthisthy son came, then thou on-sathi phersa jēvan kitor-matā.' Aske ŏr ittör, ōnkun 'marī, nimē him-for big feast made-hast.' Then he him-to said. 'son, thou baskē-hī nāvā barobar mantī, $n\bar{a}v\bar{a}$ νŏ sarādō sampat nivā-y mantā. always me withart, andmy allproperty thine-only is. Par ānand vō khusī kiyānā chānglō mattā. id Idkāran. ir nī and merry to-make thisThis goodwas. reason, this thy

jitā-ātor-mattā; νō davdē-māsi sási-mattor, ōr malsī tamūr again alive-become-has; younger-brother lost-become dead-was, he andsāpdē-māsi mattor. mattor, ōr was. found-become was, he

The so-called Mariās in Chanda are found in the same localities as the Gonds proper, and their dialects are almost identical. The number of speakers was estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 31,500. This estimate is probably above the mark, only 9,655 speakers having been returned at the Census of 1901.

Pronunciation.—The pronunciation is the same as in the Mariā of Bastar. Compare lon, house; him, give.

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns is the same as in the Gondi dialect of the district. There are several instances of plural forms. Thus, $p\bar{e}ksaku$, children; ask, women; murran, cows.

Pronouns.—The pronouns are apparently the same as in the so-called Gondi. Note, however, mammat, we; mammatku, to us; mimmat, you.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is the same as in the Mariā of Bastar, and the Göndī of Chanda. Compare hāntōn, I die; mattōn, I was; vhondkān, I shall go; mantīn, thou art; mattī, thou wast; mattā, it was; kikōm, we shall do; mattōr, fem. and neut. mattāng, they were; kim, do; kimā, don't do.

The negative particle hille is not inflected. Thus, hiyyā-hille, gave not, for all persons.

Note forms such as mat-aske, when being; $kharchatt\bar{a}$ - $pajj\bar{a}$, after spending; $tinj\bar{e}k$ $matt\bar{a}$, was eating; $kars\bar{e}k$ $matt\bar{o}r$, they were playing; hille-y- \bar{a} , is it not? etc.

The short specimen which follows will show how closely the dialect agrees with the Gondi of Chanda.

[No. 68.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖŅDĪ.

So-called Maria Dialect.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

Undi mankēnku rend vhudlā pēksaku mattor, undi pēdal vōsō undi One man-to twosmallchildren were, oneboy one pēdī. Pēdal mandōr võr mendulte nekkā nēhanā mattor, pēdi girt.Boywas he body-in very goodwas, the-girl vhudūl nēhanā mattā. Undi dinā avvu rendāsi pēksaku addamu littlegood was. One daythosebothchildren mirror motras karsēk-mat-aske pekkal pēkin ittōr, 'rīn idu addamate mammat near playing-being-then boy girl-to said, 0 thisglass-in we hudköm nēhanā bēs bör disintor.' Addu pēkinku addu lāgō ātā, we-shall-see goodwellwhoseems.' That girl-to thatwas, dānku tēdi-ittā ʻ vīr ki, iddu mammatku siggutku ittor.' her-to being-known-thought 'this that, this to-lower mesaid. Aske addu tappe motras hoñji tādanā kuddi vhēhattā. Addu ittā, Then shefather near going brother-of complaint told. Shesaid. 'tappe, addam-ante mendul vhudsi samajā āmanā iddu āskunā kabad father, glass-in bodyseeing satisfaction to-become this women's business mattā. Avate mankēnku mansu dōshā lāgō.' Tappe irurku pir-sī is. That-on a-man-to mind to-put is-bad.' The-father bothbelly-to pīsī võnā samajā kittör. Vor ittor, 'pēksaku, mimmat vahāchad clasping theirsatisfaction made. Hesaid, ' children, you quarrel kimā.' do-not-make.

Pēdi ittā, 'tappe, Sōmā gollāl, päl pisi vāttōr. Vor ittor. $The ext{-}girl$ said, 'father, Somā milkman, milk bringing came. Hesaid. " bachuk vātkān?"' pāl Tappe 'pēdi, ittor, vonku vhayā ki, "how-much milkshall-I-give?"' The-father said, 'girl, him-to saythat, "nēd gottā-mēnd pāl āntā, hakkēr rend gottā pisi vā.", Pēdi " to-day seer-a milkis, to-morrow seer bringing twocome." The-girl ittā. 'tappe, gollāl pāl bagtāl tattantor?' Tappe ittor. father, the-milkman said, milkwherefrom brings?' The-father said. tēdiyā-hilleyā? 'niku Vonā lōn murrān mantān, barhēn known-not? thee-to Hishouse-in cows are, she-buffaloes mantān. Dânā pāl tattantor.' pirsī vōr Pēdi ittā. 'tappe, are. Their milkextracting hebrings.' The-girl said, father,

barhēn bachuk hinta?' murrān bachuk pāl hintā, võsõ pāl buffaloes how-much milkgive ?' milkgive,and cows how-much 'undi undi murrā rend gottā pāl hintā, võsō rend barhēn Tappe ittor. milk gives, and buffaloes twotwoseers The-father said, 'one one nālu nālu hintā.' four four give.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A man had two small children, a son and a daughter. The boy was very handsome, the girl was not very pretty. One day the children were playing near a lookingglass, and the boy said to the girl, 'let us look into the glass and see who is the prettier.'
The girl did not like the proposal, thinking that he only wished to humiliate her.
She went to her father and complained of the brother. Said she, 'it is the business of
women to be pleased at looking into the glass. It is not proper that men should set
their mind on it.' The father embraced them both, satisfied them, and said, 'do not
quarrel.'

Said the daughter, 'father, Sōmā, the milkman, has brought milk, and asks how much we want.' The father answered, 'tell him, my daughter, that one seer will do to-day. To-morrow he must bring two.'

Said the daughter, 'father, where does the milkman get the milk?'

The father answered, 'do you not know that he has cows and buffaloes in his house and milks them?'

Said the daughter, 'how much milk do the cows give, and how much the buffaloes?'

The father answered, 'each cow gives two seers, and each buffaloe four.'

In the south of Chanda Telugu is the principal native language. There is, however, also a Gönd population. The Gönds call themselves Köi as in other districts, and this name has often been adopted to denote them. The Köis or Gönds of the hills, especially in Sironcha, are known as Gaṭṭu or Goṭṭe Köis.

Kōi or Kōyā and Gaṭṭu have been returned as separate dialects from Chanda. The estimated number of speakers is as follows:—

Kōi or Kō	yā	•	•	•	•	•		•		•		10,455
Gattu		•		•		•	•	•	•	٠	•	1,680
									Тота	L .		12,135

The corresponding figures at the Census of 1901 were 8,144 for Kōi and 5,483 for Gattu.

Specimens have been forwarded both of the so-called Kōi and of the so-called Gaṭṭu. Both represent the same dialect, which can be characterized as a link between the forms of Gōṇḍī spoken in the north-east of Chanda and the adjoining districts in the Bastar State on one side, and the Gōṇḍī dialects of Hyderabad and the Madras Presidency on the other.

Pronunciation.—As in other Gönd dialects of the district we find l and h corresponding to Standard Gönd r and s, respectively, in words such as $l\bar{o}n$, house; $l\bar{o}hutt\bar{o}r$, has sent; $h\bar{a}si$, having died, etc.

Nouns.—The dative and the accusative are distinguished; thus, $p\bar{e}kur-ku$, to the sons; $m\bar{o}pu$, a bundle, accusative $m\bar{o}ptunu$.—The ablative ends in elli; thus, $pol\bar{a}ntakelli$, from the fields. Note the use of the common Telugu postpositions $l\bar{o}$, among; $l\bar{o}$, with.

With regard to numerals I have noted oru, one, neuter undi; iruvaru and iur, two; muvuru, three; nāluru, four.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nannā, I	nīmu, thou	$\bar{o}r(u)$, he; adu , it.
nannu, me		ōn, ōrnu, ōrni, him.
nāku, to me	•••	ōrku, to him.
nāva, m y	$n\bar{\imath}va$, thy	ōna, his.
manamu, mammu, mammāṭu, we	<i>mīru</i> , you	$\bar{o}r(u)$, they.

Verbs.—The inflexion of verbs is the same as in the other Gond directs of the district. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}t\bar{\alpha}n$, I did; $mant\bar{o}ru$, he is; $\bar{\imath}tur$, he gave; mante, it is; $art\bar{a}$, it fell; padkam, we shall become; $matt\bar{o}ru$, they were. Note forms such as $k\bar{\imath}tin\bar{\imath}$, thou didst.

The negative verb is regularly formed. Thus, thendon, I did not break; hiyyonu, I do not give; pagor, he could not; āyō, it did not become; iyyā hiile, thou didst not give, he did not give; pagviri, you could not. Note hilvakē, if not; ilvadu, without; inkon-mā, do not say; vehavatu, do not say.

Participles are formed as in other Göndī dialects. Thus, hāsōr, dying; īsōr, giving; tūsī, having divided; kīsī, having done; vāsēk, coming; hāsēkā mantān, I am dying.

Relative participles end in a; thus, tūsi-hotta marrī, lost-gone son, the son who had been lost.

The conditional ends in \tilde{e} as in Telugu; thus, $itt\tilde{e}$, if you say; $v\tilde{a}t\tilde{e}$, if he came.

Verbal nouns end in a; thus, $pada-l\bar{a}si$, in order to become; $\bar{a}ta-payya$, after becoming; mat-aske, being when.

Note finally causative forms such as padisōr, preparing, making. Compare Kanarese. For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the so-called Gattu dialect, the second is a popular tale in the so-called Kōi.

[No. 69.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅŅĪ.

SO-CALLED GATTU OR GOTTE DIALECT.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

vudlõru vēhattur, Ōru-lō Oruvinku iruvuru pēkuru mattoru. the-younger said, Them-among were. twosons One-to nāk-īm.' Ōr tappe iruvuru tūs sampādistadu nāva nīva 'tappe, me-to-give.' Thatfather twosharethyproperty-from my father, vudlöru āta-payya $nend\bar{o}$ Konni tūsī ītōr. āsti pēkurku becoming-after the-younger daysgave. Some propertydividing sons-to hottoru. Hagge hotta-payya payinam-āsi poyisi lakku tūsi tana journey-becoming went. There going-after far-to his gathering sharebottigā hotta-payya tūs-anta hedisottor. Ōr padu-kīsī tūsi tana going-after Heshare-all spending masted. spend-doing his share kashta-radtor. Ōru aske karuvu arta, aske ōru beria ā nātine hewretched-became. Hethen famine fell, then country-in thatmankalu ōrnu polantagge padi Ā hottor. nātine oruvin lon ā field-to That man himswine went. housethatcountry-in one-of mayittadu pollutu pitku tittoru. Padi tinnanga mēhatta-lāy löhuttör. husks he belly-for ate. left-that Swine eaten sent. feeding-for gadā, 'nāva tappe velle iyya-hille. ittor Aske ōr Aske ōrku bōru that (?), 'my father many gave-not. Then hesaidhim-to anyone Then hāsōr mantān. Nannā malsi ghāṭadku būtinōrku īsōr manturu; nannā I food-without again I dying servants-to giving is; dēvun-aggē "tappe, dāyintān vehintān gadā, nannā nāva tappēnagga God-before-indeed \boldsymbol{I} that, "father, will-say will-go father-near Igā-munne nannu nī marri kītān. ninaggē pāpam thyson80 Henceforward me did. sinthee-before-indeed tappēnagga hottor. kalpa." Ilā iñji būtinōr-tō nivehavatu. Nannu saying father-near consider." So servants-with thysay-not. Me oru gudugat-porru vitator **ortagga** tappe mahā-jēku vūdisi ōr võn Aske neck-on ranhisthat father him-near seeing very-far Then him 'tappe, nannā dēvunaggē ittor gadā, Marri vādsi toddi burtor. kavvi father, God-before that, saidmouthkissed. The-son hands claspingmarri ani vehavatu.' Aske nī kītān. Igā-munne papam nīnaggē Then say-not.' son 80 Hence forward thy did. sin thee-before kaiku muddā kerasu tatchi 'kapidi būtinēr-tō ittor gadā, tappe puthand-on ring cloth. bringing that, servants-with said the father

helpu kālkunku kerasu. Manamu ghāt tiñji sambra padkam. Bārānkushoe feet-to Weput. riceeating merry will-become. Why-onittē, nāva marri hāsi, pistor; tappisonji, vendi dorkutor.' Aske ōru saying, my sonhaving-died, lived; being-lost, again was-found. Then they sambra-padisör mantur. merry-making were.

Ōn pedda marri polantagge mattoru. Polantakelli lōn vāsōr mantur, Hisbigson field-in was. Field-from housecoming was, aske sonāyibājā ātahudisi kēńchi ōru būtinor-lo orni kēyittur ōrni, then music dancing hearing heservants-among calledonehim, 'bātal rō?' ani iñji talptor. Būtinōru ittur, 'nī tamuru what 02' saying asked. The-servant said, 'thy younger-brother malsi nehina vattoru; nīva tappe ghātu tāstur.' Vorku hongu vāsi again safe came; thyfather rice prepared. Him-to anger coming. lōn honda-ille. Ōn tappe palāte vāsi ōn batimi-lädtör. Aske housewent-not. Hisfather coming outhisentreaty-applied. Then pedda marri ittur, 'ichum varshan mī-aggē mattān. Miva pollō bigson said, 'so-many I-was. years you-near Your command beskanēnu tendon. Mīru nāku $n\bar{a}$ dostitōni sambra-padalāsi beska any-time not-broke. You me-to friends-with mymerry-to-become ever. yēṭa-pōri iyya-hille. Lanjaboddihinku somm-anta tāsi-hotta marri a-kidgavest-not. Harlots-to property-all having-thrown-going sonvāta-payya vindu kītinī.' Ōr ittur, 'nā-tōni nīmu mantinī-gāka coming-after feast madest.' Hesaid, 'me-with thou art-because somm-anta nīvadē. Ni tamuru hāsi. marlā vattoru; property-all thine-indeed. Thy brother having-died. alivecame; tappisonji, dorkutur, sambra-padkam.' having-been-lost, was-found, merry-we-shall-become.'

[No. 70.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅŅĪ.

SO-CALLED KOI DIALECT.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

kūdisi painam-oñjek markalöru mattör. Sommu-ton: Nāluru joining journey-having-gone were. Four men Money-with Tūsālāsi undi dorkutā. kayyan padtā. Chālā mattā sañchi sēpū was-found. Dividing-for disputearose. Longbag one time being vāsēk-mantor, thirā-ille. Nār-nuñchi undi kōmti ōrku-mattasu āta subsided-not. Village-from merchantthem-towards coming-was. became 'kōmti, charu-kattat-parru ūdsi nāluru ilā ittor-gadā, mammu: said-that, 'merchant, tank-embankment-on seeing four him-with we tiñji malisi vāintam. Mammātu nāluru vāsi talpit-aske gātā Wefour coming asking-when ricehaving-eaten again come. tāsi cherunaku hottor. Yēr-tungsi adi himō,' vehchi sañchi ort-agge give,' saying bag him-near putting tank-to went. Having-bathed that udutur. Ā-sañchitadu · mādānīdatē $v\bar{i}sam$ tendsi gātā tita-payyō ōru riceeating-after they tree-under sat. That-bag-from anna taking tara-lāsi ōr-lō ondi komtit-agge löhattör. Ōru. adutku paggu that-for tobaccobuy-to them-among one merchant-to sent. He, 'sañchi 'mañchid,' ani komtit-agge hoñji, hīm,' iñji talaptor. Kōmţi 'bag well. merchant-to asked. going, give, saying Merchant 80 'kadama muyuru vātē intini ilvakē hiyyonu.' Aske: ittor-gadā, three if-come I-shall-give if-not 'other I-give-not. Then said-that, mādātidā-mattā muvurüyekä tiriyetör ittor-gadā, 'mī pollō ilvadu ดีพา returned three-to said-that, 'your tree-under-being orderwithout he"iyyon," ittor,' ani ittór. 'Imu, īmu,' ōru kīkā-vādtor. kōmti, " I-give-not," said, said. ' Give, the-merchant, give, they shouted. Ōru sañchi tendsi ā mankanku ītōr. adi Komti pīsi takingthatman-to Hethat the-bag gave. seizing The-merchant ōttōr. ran.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time four men were undertaking a journey together. They found a bag full of money and began to quarrel about the division. After some time, while they were still quarrelling, they saw a merchant coming from the village and said to him, 'we will go to the tank and eat, let us have this if we all come and ask for it,' and so they deposited the bag with him and went to the tank. After having bathed and eaten they

sat down in the shade of a tree. Then one of them was sent to take an anna from the bag and buy some tobacco. He said, 'all right,' and went to the merchant and asked for the bag. Said the merchant, 'I shall restore the bag if the other three come and ask for it. If not, I will not give it you.' He then returned to the three, sitting under the tree and said, 'the merchant declines to give me the bag without order from you.' They then all cried out, 'let him have it, let him have it.' The merchant then gave the bag to the man, who immediately ran off with it.

Proceeding beyond the southern frontier of the district of Chanda we reach the territories of His Highness the Nizam. Gōnḍī is there spoken together with Telugu in the north-east. The Gōnḍs are known as Kōis or Kōyās in Kamamet and are called Gaṭṭu or Goṭṭe in the hills. The number of speakers at the Census of 1891 was 36,157. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were 15,895, of whom 15,386 were returned from Warangal, for Kōyā, while 59,669 entered their language under the head of Gōnḍī. 50,727 of the latter were returned from Sirpur Tandur. No specimens are available, and we are not, therefore, in a position to make any definite statement about the dialect or dialects spoken in the various districts.

Göndī dialects are also, to some extent, spoken in the Madras Presidency. The following figures have been taken from the reports of the Censuses of 1891 and 1901:—

							Census of 1891.	Census of 19	1
Gōṇḍī			• .				6,694	4,240	
Kōi		•					36,503	46,803	
Gațțu							353	11	
	*				То	TAL	43,550	51,054	

The Gonds are chiefly found in the Vizagapatam and Godavari Agencies.

The Madras Presidency lies outside the territory included in the Linguistic Survey and no materials have been forwarded from the district. We are, however, well informed about the so-called Kōi dialect of Bhadrachalam in Godavari, and it will be of use to give a short account of that form of speech.

AUTHORITIES-

CAIN, REV. JOHN,—The Bhadrachallam and Rekapalli Taluquas. Indian Antiquary, Vol. viii, 1879, pp. 33 and ff. (vocabulary); Vol. x, 1881, pp. 259 and ff. (grammar).

The Koi, a Southern tribe of the Gond. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society. New Series, Vol. xiii, 1881, pp. 410 and ff.

The Gospel of Luke. Lūkārāste Kuśēlte Kaburu. Madras Auxiliary Bible Society, 1889 (first edition London, 1882).

The specimen printed below has been transliterated from the edition of the Gospel of St. Luke in Telugu type, published in Madras, 1889. The older edition of the Gospel, London, 1882, was printed in Roman letters, and has been consulted for the transliteration. The pronunciation of the dialect does not call for any remark. It is well represented in the transliteration. It should be noted that the palatals are pronounced as in Telugu.

Nouns.—The suffixes of the plural are ru, ku (sku), and igu; thus, tappe, father; $tapp\bar{e}ru$, fathers; kalu, foot; $k\bar{a}lku$, feet: nela, month; nelsku, months: $l\bar{o}nu$, house; $l\bar{o}hakku$ or $l\bar{o}nku$, houses: $m\bar{a}ra$, a tree; $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}ku$ or $m\bar{a}ra\bar{n}gu$, trees. Note $\bar{a}l\bar{a}d\bar{i}$, younger sister, plural $\bar{a}l\bar{a}sku$; $mayy\bar{a}d\bar{i}$, a daughter. plural $mayy\bar{a}sku$, etc.

The regular inflexion of nouns will be seen from the table which follows:-

	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	tappe, a father.	tappēru.	māra, a tree.	mārāku.
Acc.	tappēni.	tappēreni.	māranu.	mārākīni.
Dat.	tappēniki.	tappēriki.	māratki.	mārākīniki.
Abl.	tappēnaggada.	tappērenaggada.	māratinunchi.	mārākīni-nuñchi.
Gen.	tappēni.	tappēreni.	$m\bar{a}rati.$	mārākīni.
Loc.	tappēnagga.	tappērenagga.	$m\bar{a}rate.$	mārākīni-lō.

Other postpositions are $l\bar{o}$, in, among; $t\bar{o}$, with, etc.

The numerals are borrowed from Telugu. The masculine form for 'two' is, however, iruvuru.

Pronouns.—There are two forms of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person, manada and mamma. The former includes, and the latter excludes, the person addressed.

The two first personal pronouns are inflected as follows:-

	I.	We (inclusive).	We (exclusive).	Thou,	You.
Nom.	nanna.	manada.	mamma.	nimma.	mīru.
Acc.	nanna. nāki.	mana.	mamma. māki.	nimma. nīki.	mimmunu miki.
Gen.	$n\bar{a}$.	mana.	mā.	nī.	$mar{\imath}$.

Other forms are also occasionally used; thus, $m\bar{a}mini$, us (exclusive); $n\bar{i}nini$, thee, etc.

The demonstrative pronoun ondu, that, is inflected as follows:-

	м	asculine.	Feminine and neuter				
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur			
Tom.	ōņḍu.	ōru.	addu.	avu.			
Acc.	ōni(ni.)	ōrini.	dānini.	vāţini.			
Dat.	ōniki.	ōriki.	dāniki.	vāţski			
Gen.	ōni.	ōri.	$d\bar{a}ni.$	vāţi.			

The masculine plural is sometimes also used to denote women. This fact is due to the influence of Telugu.

It will be seen that $\bar{o}ndu$ is identical with Telugu $v\bar{a}du$ for which the literary dialect has $v\bar{a}du$. The other forms of the pronoun are likewise the same as in Telugu.

Similarly are inflected $v\bar{v}ndu$, this, gen. $v\bar{v}ni$; iddu, this woman or thing, gen. $d\bar{v}ni$, setc. 'Who?' is $b\bar{e}n\bar{o}ndu$, and 'what?' is $b\bar{a}ta$.

Verbs.—The present tense of the verb substantive is conjugated as follows:—

Sing. 1. minnāna. 2. minnīni.

3. m. minnondu.

3. f. and n. minne.

Plur. 1. minnāmu.

2. minnīri.

3. m. minnoru.

3. f. and n. minnāngu.

The same personal terminations are used throughout; thus, mattīni, thou wast; mantōndu, he may be, he will be; mandakōna, I shall be; mandakīri, you will be.

The finite verb has three regular tenses, an indefinite which is used as a present and a future; a past tense, and a future. Thus, tungitāna, I do, or shall do; kettōnḍu, he said; tungtōru, they did; unḍukōna, I shall drink. It will be seen that the tense suffixes are the same as in ordinary Gōṇḍī. Note, however, forms such as mandakōnḍu, he will be; mandakōru, they will be.

Verbal nouns and verbal participles are formed as in other Gond dialects. Thus, mehta-nīki, in order to tend; tuṅgan-aske and tuṅgat-aske, if he does; vatt-aske, when he came; atta-payya, going after; vāsōre, coming; tuṅgōre, doing, etc.

The conjunctive participle ends in i; thus, $t\bar{e}di$, having arisen; $i\tilde{n}ji$, having said; $v\bar{a}si$, having come.

Relative participles are used instead of relative pronouns. The usual termination is e; thus, ondu tungte pani, he doing work, the work he did; koduvte lengatini, the fatted calf. Another form ends in āni. Thus, nāki vādāni pālu, me-to coming share; paddī tinnāni pollēte, swine eaten husks in, with the husks which the swine ate.

The negative verb is regularly formed. Thus, tuṅgōna, I do not do; tuṅgōni, thou didst not do; illōnḍu, he is not; ayyō, it came not; ivīri, you gave not; ayyōru, they are not; īd-ille, gave not; kolp-ille, made not; vem-ma, don't fear. There are apparently also negative participles and verbal nouns. I have noted punvadāni minnāna, not knowing I am, I do not know.

The interrogative particle is \bar{a} ; thus, $ivir-\bar{a}$, do you not give? $puttin-\bar{a}$, doest thou know?

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows.

[No. 71.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GÖŅDĪ.

Kot DIALECT.

(Madras Auxiliary Bible Society, 1889.)

Oravute tsūdondu, mattoru. marku manushūniki iruvuru Oro were. Them-among the-younger, sons two man-to One īmu, iñji tappēni-tōte vādāni pālu nāki ādāte nī 'tappēnī, saying father-with me-to coming share give,' property-in "father-O, thyittondu. Sagamu rōzku ādātīni tūśi ōṇdu ōni Aske kettondu. Fewdaysdividing gave. property hehis said. Then kaide pevisi dūra anta ādā tsüdöndu ōni atta-payya hand-in alltaking far his property the-younger going-after āgamu-tungtondu. ōni ādātīni mēlo paningine añji painamu dēśētiki expenditure-did. bad deeds-in his property going journey country-to dēśēte karuvu vatte lāvu ā atta-payya kartsu Addu bigcountry-in famine came becoming-after thatexpended That añji $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ dēśēte orrōniki artondu. Ondu õndu tippa aske one-to fell. Hehaving-gone thatcountry-in misery then padī mēhtanīki ōnini ēnikinki röhtöndu. Öndu mattondu. löngi sent. himfields-to swine to-feed was. joining ōni niḥtanīki āśa partondu, pollēte dokka tinnāni Öndu padī his belly filling-for wishbecame, eaten husks-with swine He $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ la manan-aske ōniki buddhi vāśi īdille. ōniki bēnondu gōni him-to sensehaving-come gave-not. So being-then him-to any-one but dībe kūligāhkinki doda betstsō-mandi ' nā tappēn-agga ondu, food muchservants-to how-many-persons father-of-near 'my he, nanna karuvini dollore minnana. Nanna tappēn-agga gōni minde my father-of-near Ι I hunger-with dying am. but ismunne pāpamu "ō nanna dēvuni munne nī yayyā, añji, before sin God-of thy " O father, 1 before having-gone, kechchi iñji minnāna. Ingāti-kāśi nī marrini tungi having-uttered having-said Now-from thyson am. having-done kūldōr-avuţe Nanna nī harrini ayyona. nanna mananiki hirelings-among Me thy I worthy am-not. being-for ērpa, " iñji ōni-tōţe keyitāna,' iñji tēdi ōni oron-āla arising his keep," saying will-say, saying him-with one-of-so dūrāte manan-aske attondu. Gōni ōṇdu inka tappēn-agga being-then stilldistance-at went. But hefather-near

ōni tappe ōnini ūdi sukuru vāśi, mirri, ōni vedēte his father him having-seen compassion coming, running, hisneck٠ō porro arśi ōnini burtondu. Aske ā marri, yayyā, nanna on falling Then 0 ' him kissed. thatson. father, Ι dēvuni munne nī munne pāpamu tungi minnāna. Ingatikāśi God-of before thy before sinhaving-done am. **Henceforward** nī iñji marrini kechchi mananiki harrīni ayyona,' iñji having-said thyson having-said being-for worthy I-am-not, saying oniki kettondu. Gōni 'sannāti tappe, gudda tachchi ōniki him-to said. Butthe-father, 'good clothhaving-brought him-to kerpissi ōni vanijinki ungaramu vāti kālkinki erpūku having-put his fingers-on ring having-put feet-on shoes kerpissāti. Koduvte lēngatīni tachchi köyimüti, manada tiñji put. Fatted calfhaving-brought slaughter, we having-eaten kuśēli pardakāda Bāritku. indu marri dolli, malśi let-us-become. merry Why, this mysonhaving-died, again batakatondu; māyi, doruktondu,' iñji ŏni jītagāhkintōte lived ; having-been-lost, was-found,' saying hisservants-with kettondu. Aske õru kuśēli pardanīki modalo peyittoru. said. Then they happybecoming-for preparation took. Īla mannānga ōni pedda marri ēnde mattondu. Öndu So being-on his big 80n field-in was. Hevāsore lött-agga vatt-aske vemsa-nadu ēndanadu kēnjtondu. Aske coming house-near coming-then musicdancing heard. Then navukārīni ortīni karingi, 'ivu bāta?' iñji talptondu. servant one having-called, 'these-things what? saying asked.Ā navukāri ʻnī oni-tote, vattondu, tammundu ōṇdu That servant him-with, 'thy younger-brother came, heōn-agga tsakkāne ērta-kāde nī tappe koduvte lengatīni him-near wellcoming-because thy father fatted calf kōvissi minnond-'iñji kettondu. Ket-kāde öndu rōśemu having-slaughtered is'-saying said. Saying-because he angertachchi lāpā vādanīki mati kolp-ille. Aske ōni tappe baidiki having-brought insidecoming-for mind arranged-not. Then his father outsidevāśi ōnini basima-lādtondu. Aske ondu, 'idō, itstsak ēndkīni-kāśi having-come him to-entreat-began. Then he, ·lo, .so-many years-from nīnini nanna sēva-tungōre minnāna. Nî māta nanna beskētik I thee service-doing am. Thyword Ι ever tappillana. Attakanna nanna nā bōkatōri-tōte kuśēli pardaniki nāki transgressed-not. Being-even Imyfriends-with merry becoming-for me-to beppodanna oro mēka-pilla-nna nimma id-ille. Gōni nī ādātīni ever-even one goat-young-even thou gavest-not. But thy property

palvatānāte kartsu tungte ī nī marri vatt-askē-nē īni making thisthycoming-then-indeed debauchery-in spent sonhisvāttīni,' kōvissi iñji ōni kōsātki koduvte lēngatīni tappēniki threwst,' slaughtering saying hisfather-to sake-for fattedcalf' pēkā, nimma beppōtiki $n\bar{a}$ minnīni. malśi kettöndu. Aske öndu. agga again Then son, thou said. he, always me near art. Manadu āśi minnāngu. kuśēli parśi Nāva anta nīvadu Wehaving-become having-become is. merry Myallthine tammundu indu dolli, malśi bāritku, nī ēntadu sare, to-stay good, why, thyyounger-brother this having-died, againkettondu. dorukutondu,' iñji ōnik**i** battakutöndu: māyi, said. was-found, him-to lived; having-been-lost, saying

A similar dialect is also spoken in Bastar, on the banks of the Saberi. The number of speakers of Kōi has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 4,169. No speakers were returned at the Census of 1901.

The short specimen which follows in most particulars agrees with the so-called Kōi of the Madras Presidency. Note only $\bar{o}du$, he; and $menn\bar{o}d$, he is. The third person singular of verbs also ends in $\bar{o}n$; thus, $kett\bar{o}n$, he said.

Tantōnḍu, thou struckest, is probably wrong. If not, it is a regular noun of agency.

The third person singular neuter and the relative participle often end in a and not in e; thus, tagatta, it hit; but also matte, she was, etc.

On the whole, the specimen is not very correct. It is, however, sufficient to show the general character of the dialect.

[No. 72.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅDĪ.

So-called Koi Dialect.

(STATE BASTAR.).

Savāl.— Guddi-Lakshāni nimma thouknowest? Question.—Guddi-Laksha Bēnōdo kachērī mennōd. Javāpu.— Nijam. Answer.-Certainly. He-who in-court is. Guddi-Lakshāni tantondu? Savāl.—Nimma kachērī matta gaddapārāte axe-with Guddi-Laksha struckest? Question. - Thou in-court being Javāpu.—Nijam. Answer .- Yes. Bechki debbā tantīni? Savāl.--Question .- How-many blows struckest? tantāna. Rodda gālute Javāpu.—Rendu debbā tagatta. Answer .- Two blows I-struck. Left thigh-in it-hit. Savāl.— Bār tantīni? struckest? Question. - Why kallu uțțāno, Empuram Javāpu.—Debbālu-dinam nanna vattāna, Answer.— Quarrel-day \boldsymbol{I} liquor drank, Empurawent,Kāram Pāpayyadi mutte paruukunta matte. Lakshālu kai Laksha $P\bar{a}payya$'s illhand. $K\bar{a}ram$ wife was. añja kudatāna. Lakshālu nanna yūdor mattō, aggā nanna I Laksha seeing was. there having-gone sat. dāni-gurinchi nāku vatte. Gaddapārā nūki-ittō; rōsam pushing-gave; that-of-on-account me-to anger came. The-axe pehakatāna. iñjōrematte. Dāni nanna Duddi gonte That lifted-up. Stick veranda-in I saying was. debbā tantāna. Lakshāni rendu Laksha blows struck. two karangatīn-ā? Savāl.— Kāram Rāmālu Kāram Gujjālu niu calledest? Question .- Kāram $R\bar{a}ma$ $K\bar{a}ram$ $Gujj\bar{a}$ thou iñjore Javāpu.—Nijam. Guddi-Lakshālu nāni tannitō nanna kēkatāna. Answer .- Yes. Guddi-Lakshā me will-strike sayingΙ called. Savāl.— Niki beppudainā virodam Guddi-Lakshānu munne Question. - Thee-to Guddi-Laksha-of formerly ever enmity

mende-yā?

was ?.

Javapu — Ille.

Answer.—No.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Do you know Guddi Laksha?

Yes. He who is here in court.

Did you strike Guddi Laksha with the axe which has been produced in the court? Yes.

How many blows?

Two. And I hit him in the left thigh.

Why did you strike him?

On the day of the quarrel I was drunk. I went to Empura. At that time Kāram Pāpayya's wife was ill, and Laksha was feeling her pulse. I came there and sat down, and Laksha pushed me off. Therefore I got angry and seized the axe which I found in the veranda. I thought it to be a stick and dealt him two blows.

You called in Kāram Rāma and Kāram Gujjā.

Yes, because I thought that Guḍḍi Laksha would beat me.

Have you ever had any quarrel with Guddi Laksha before?

No.

PARJĪ.

The Parjas are an aboriginal tribe in the Bastar State. They are found round Jagdalpur and towards the south and south-east. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 17,387. At the last Census of 1901, 8,933 speakers were returned.

Parjī has hitherto been considered as identical with Bhatrī. See Vol. v, Part ii, pp. 434 and ff., where the various authorities dealing with the tribe have been mentioned.

Bhatrī has now become a form of Oriyā. Parjī, on the other hand, is still a dialect of Gōndī.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from Bastar. The first specimen is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son. It is so corrupt that I have been unable to print more than the beginning, and almost every form occurring in it must be used with caution. The second specimen, a Parjī translation of the statement of an accused person, is much better. It was, however, only forwarded in Dēvanāgarī, and the reading is not always certain. The list has not been reproduced.

Under such circumstances it is impossible to give a full grammatical sketch of the dialect. I can only make a few remarks, and even those are given with the utmost reserve.

Pronunciation.—Final d is interchangeable with t; n is sometimes replaced by l; etc. Thus, $ch\bar{e}nd\bar{e}t$ and $ch\bar{e}nd\bar{e}d$, went; the suffix of the accusative is l or n; thus, $m\bar{a}lin$, the son; $M\bar{a}t\bar{a}l$, $M\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, both in the accusative case.

Nouns.—The suffixes of the plural are $\bar{e}r$, l, and kul; thus, $s\bar{a}kh\bar{\imath}t\bar{e}r$, witnesses; chindu-l, sons; $p\bar{e}n-kul$, swine.

The case suffixes are almost the same as in Gondī. Thus, $t\bar{a}t\bar{e}n$, to the father; $M\bar{a}t\bar{a}lu$, to Māṭā; $m\bar{a}n\bar{i}\cdot n\bar{o}$, of a man; $tangiy\bar{a}\cdot l$, of an axe; $pal\bar{u}pt\bar{i}$, in the village; $t\bar{e}lti$, on the head, etc.

Numerals.— $\bar{O}kur\bar{\imath}$, neuter $\bar{o}kat\bar{\imath}$, one; irul, two; $m\bar{u}ir$ or $mund\bar{u}$, three; nilir, four; $s\bar{e}vir$, five; $s\bar{e}j\bar{e}n$, six; $kud\bar{e}k$, twenty. The numerals above six are borrowed from the Aryan neighbours.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns :-

ān, I.	in, thou.	0.71	$\bar{o}d$, he.
$\bar{a}nar{e}$, $anu\dot{n}g$, me.	ini, thee.		ōnung, ōni(n), him.
an, my.	in, thy.		ōn, his.
am, we.	im, you.		
am, our.	im, your.		

 $\bar{O}d$, he, should probably be written $\bar{o}d$, and, in the same way, d and not d is probably the correct termination of the third person singular of verbal forms. Compare Kōi.

Other pronouns are ad, that thing, $\bar{a}dan$, $\bar{a}nin$, its; $in\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$, in this; i and $h\bar{a}$, this (used as adjectives); $\bar{e}d\bar{a}$, who ? $n\bar{a}$, what ? and so forth.

Verbs.—It is impossible to sketch the Parjī conjugation from the materials available.

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The suffix of the past tense is d or t, and in the future we sometimes find a suffix r. Thus, $t\bar{a}p\bar{e}t\bar{e}n$, I struck; $t\bar{a}pr\bar{a}n$, I shall strike. The list of words, which has not been reproduced, gives these forms for all persons and numbers. The corresponding present tense is given as $t\bar{a}p\bar{e}n$, I strike, etc. Another present is formed by adding m to the base; thus, $y\bar{e}r-m\bar{e}d$, he comes; $p\bar{o}k\bar{e}-m\bar{e}r$, they say.

The forms just quoted from the list of words give the impression that verbs do not differ for person or number. This is not, however, the case.

The following forms of the present tense of the verb substantive occur in the texts, $m\bar{e}d\bar{a}n$ or $m\bar{e}nd\bar{a}n$, I am; $m\bar{e}d\bar{a}d$, thou art, he is; $m\bar{e}d\bar{a}$, it is. In the past tense we find $m\bar{e}tt\bar{e}n$, $m\bar{e}tt\bar{e}$, and $m\bar{e}tt\bar{e}n$, I was; $m\bar{e}tt\bar{e}d$ and $m\bar{e}tt\bar{e}t$, he was; $m\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$, it was; $m\bar{e}tt\bar{e}r$, they were. Compare imperatives such as chi-ur, give; $p\bar{e}nd$ -ir, take. The regular personal terminations can accordingly be given as follows:—

Sing.	1.				n	Plur.	1.				m
	2.				t or d		2.				1
	3.	mas	c.		t or d		3. 1	mas	c.		r
	3. r	eut	j.		ā						

The suffix of the first person plural seems to occur in forms such as an chāmam, I am dying, lit. we die; undom, I used to drink. Such forms can, however, also be explained as containing the present suffix m. Compare undom, you drank.

The personal suffixes are sometimes omitted, and sometimes also confounded. Thus, $m\bar{e}tt\bar{e}$, I was; $m\bar{e}d\bar{a}y$, they are; $p\bar{o}kk\bar{e}d$, I will say (sic). Most of these cases are probably simple mistakes.

In the third person singular we sometimes find j instead of d, t; thus, $\tilde{e}\tilde{n}j\tilde{e}j$, he became; $ch\tilde{a}j\tilde{e}j$, he made.

The characteristic suffix of the negative verb seems to be \bar{a} . Compare $pun-\bar{a}(n)$, I know not; $t\bar{a}p\bar{a}n-\bar{a}$, I did not strike; $chiy\bar{o}-\bar{a}$, I did not do; $ch\bar{e}n\bar{e}n-\bar{a}$, I did not go; $chivr-\bar{a}$, you gave-not; $ch\bar{a}j\bar{e}d-\bar{a}$, he did not; $ch\bar{e}n\bar{a}d-\bar{a}$, he did not go; $chiy\bar{a}r-\bar{a}-\bar{e}ri$, gave-not. Note also $chill\bar{e}$, he is not; $chill\bar{a}$, it is not; $ch\bar{a}j\bar{e}-m\bar{e}n$, don't do.

The conjunctive participle ends in i; thus, chēni, having gone; pōki mēttēn, I had said; chāi-chēndēt, he had died, etc.

For further details the specimens should be consulted. The first specimen is, however, so corrupt that it must be used with the greatest caution.

[No 73.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅĐÎ.

PARJĪ DIALECT.

(STATE BASTAR.)

SPECIMEN I.

		-							
Okura	i mānīn	ō irul	chindu	l mē	ttēr.	Ā-vita	aratē		piți
One	man-q	f two	sons	w	ere.	Them-	among	the- 5	younger
chindu	tātēn	pōkkēd,	٥ō	tātā,	\mathbf{an}	bāṭā	chiur.	. Dh	an-māl
son	father-to	said,	·O .	father,	my	share	give.	P	roperty
mēttā,	pāichi	chiñjir.	Pi	iți	chiṇḍu	ōk	tikan	idi-	mēttēt,
was,	$\overline{dividing}$	gave.	Your	iger	son	to_{ℓ}	gether	putti	ing-was,
khubē		chēni-mē							$m\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$
far	country	going-u	as,	riotous	livi	ing- in	prop	erty	was
gavayetet.	Od	jammā	\mathbf{dhan}		põhlēt,		ā	dēś	baŗē
spent.	He	all	proper	ty so	quander	ed,	that co	ountry	big
chākul	pattā.	Chākul	paṭṭā,	garīb	ēî	ijēj.	$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{h}$	ākul	paţţā
famine	arose.	Famine	arose,	poor	he- b	ecame.	Fa	mine	arose
ār	mēñiēi	tēbī	mēttēt.	Oglen	a	man	pēnk	ul	mēkuk
and a	went(?)	there	lived.	That(.	$^{?})$ m	an(?)	swin	e	to $feed$
vāyā		Pën							
	sent.								
chājēj.	Ār	yēhi-bāti	chiy	ārā-ēri.	Chi	rākānu	chi	ēt	chōttā,
made:	And	anybody(?)	ga	ve-not.	\boldsymbol{A}	t-last	sens	e	came(?),
adin	pōkkēd,	'am	tātā	bhū	ī-lōg	tin	i -gu livet	itu,	\mathbf{am}
then(?)	said,	· our	father's	sere	ants	to-eat-	have-en	ough(?)	
chāku	l chā								
with-hung	ger d	lie.	Now a	rising	father	-near	will-	go,	will-go
tātēn	pōkkē	d (sic.),	"ō	tātā,	bhagy	vān	hukur	n	chiyōā,
father-to		-say,	"O f	ather,	God	8	comman	nd I	-did-not,
tātēn	mandēd	pāpaĩyā	. Pei	n 1	tātā	abē	in	chind	ērā
father	before								
näiyēt	. A	kbē bhu	$t\bar{\imath}$ -log	yētē	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\bar{e}}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{\bar{a}}$	ētri	mēd	lān."	$\mathbf{Tab}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$
not-prop	es. N	Tow ser	vants	as	are	80	shal	l-be.",	Then
ānātı		chēndēd							
	arising								
kamiyāla	ari põkk -to said	æd, 'ēd	lō gāņ	dā u	n nūd	lēd	nūḍ-pit	ttēd;	keitī
servants.	to said	l, ʻga	od clo	th?	take	e(?) to	ake-put-	on(?);	hand-on

vātkul ring	kēlulkē feet-on	panahī shoes	-	ndum. $out(?)$	$rac{\mathbf{Am}}{We}$	tinnī-kulī feasting	bēḍkā <i>merry</i>	chārjrun(!). will-make.
Tabē Because	am my	[chiṇḍ] [son]	chāī having-died		mēttēd, was,	jīum <i>to-life</i>	pāṭṭēd ; became ;	bhulkēd <i>lost</i>
mēttēd,	phēr again	milē was-for		Tabē Then	bēḍkā <i>merry</i>	•		

[No. 74.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

GŌŅŅĪ.

PARJĪ DIALECT.

(STATE BASTAR.)

SPECIMEN II.

STATEMENT OF AN ACCUSED PERSON.

	palūptī village-in			-	$egin{array}{ll} \dot{d} & egin{array}{ll} egin{array}{ll} \dot{m} ar{e} \mathrm{d} ar{a} \mathrm{d} \end{array} egin{array}{ll} \dot{d} & egin{array}{ll} is ? \end{array}$?
Jabāb.— Hōy, Answer.—Yes,	mēttēd.	Ēbē	chillē. is-not.		<i>v</i>	
Savāl.— Māṭā Question.—Māṭā	ēbē now wi		chēndēt went?	5		
Jabāb.— Ātī Answer.—Anywhen			Chāī <i>Taving-d</i>	ied v		
Savāl.— Nātā Question.—Any					tēd? killed?	
Jabāb.— Ōnuk Answer.—Him-to	nātuṅgī <i>any</i>			chillā. was-not.	Āṇḍakī Somebody	•
Tabē võ Then he	d chāĩyēt died.					
Savāl.— Önin Question.— Him	• •	tēd i killed				
Jabāb.— Ān $Answer.$ — I	punān. know-not.	V		v		
Savāl.— Sākhī Question.—Witne			Māţāli <i>Māţā</i>	in thou	${ m tar{o}t.}$ ${\it killedest.}$	Inātī <i>This-in</i>
$egin{array}{ll} ext{in} & ext{nat} \ ext{thou} & ext{what} \end{array}$	nānēdād answeres		•			
$egin{aligned} { m Jabar ab} & { m ar An} \ { m \it Answer} & { m \it I} \end{aligned}$	tā pānā. killed-not.			nērchītēr t <i>utored</i>	mēdāy.	$ar{ ext{A}}$ n-chēṅg $ar{ ext{e}}$
Māṭāl-chēṅgē <i>Māṭā-with</i>	•			Ān n	_	chāṭtāngāṭ ? should-kill ?
Savāl. — Hā Question.—This	tangiya axe	inn thy	öyatlē house-in	pēy was-j	atā. found.	

pēyatā. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{n}$ tangiyā iyā. Idugi Jabab. —Hoy, ānn it-was-found. Myaxethis-is. Therefore Answer.—Yes, my pēyatā. **ōvatlē** house-in was-found.

Savāl. — I ṭaṅgiyātī nētir pēyatā mēndā. Question.—This axe-on blood found is.

kāti-mēttē. pēyatā mēndā. Ān bōkdē Ānin Jabāb. — Höy, having-killed-was. found is. Ι goat ItsAnswer .- Yes, mēndā. nētir pēyatā bloodfound is.

Savāl. — I gāṇḍā inn ōyatlē pēyatā mēndā. Question.—This cloth thy house-in found is.

Jabāb. -- Pulis havaldār muday gāndā öyatlē $\bar{a}n$ i ān tinchī-Answer.—Police havildār my presence-in this cloth house-in havingmymēttēr. Ān pōkī-mēttēn, 'mālik. ilākāt chājē-mēn. Ι having-said-was, 'master, do-not. thrown-was. Charkār ānē phāsī-sirāy.' Havaldar Ān-podīn pātā vērrā. will-hang.' The-havildar Me-to trouble comes. Government me 'in-gō Khūb pökēmēr. pökkēd, Mātālin tōt. lõg `thou-aloneMatakilledest. Many people say. said, tińchi-metten. inn-öyatlē gāndā thy-house-into having-thrown-was. Therefore cloth

Savāl. — In āru Māṭā mēl uṇḍōm? Question.—Thou and Māṭā liquor drank?

Ān rojun undom, chēpul tina-mēttan. $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{ar{e}l}$ uņdām, āru Jabāb. —Hōv. meateating-was. Answer .- Yes. \boldsymbol{I} daily drank, liquor drank, and Savāl. —Mansā Kēdēlin pasrātī in āru Māṭā pōrā-sīris mēl uņdām? Question.—Mansā Kēdēl's shop-in thou and Mātā Porā-day-on liquor drank? mettān. Mātāl chēngē ān māmēn Guttal **ōvatlē** Jabāb. — Pōrā-sīris MataGuttā's house-in was. with IuncleAnswer.—Pōrā-day-on

Mansā pasrātī ān chēnēnā. Sabē phandu.

Mansā-(of) shop-in I went-not. All fabrication.

Savāl. — Māṭāl murdā in chuḍat? Question.—Māṭā's corpse thou sawest?

Jabāb. — Palūp-lōg chudī-chēndīr, āgē ān balē chudī-chēndē. Answer.—Village-people to-see-went, so I also to-see-went.

Savāl. — Mātālu āribēlē gāvā mēttā? Question.— Mātā-to anywhere wound was?

iradu ōn. Jabāb. — Hōy, ōkatī gāvā tangiyal ōn tēltī mēttā, āru and another his head-on axe-of hiswas, Answer.—Yes wound Ŏntī nēttir mēntī ōkatī gāndā mēttā. ēdromtī mēttā. Ōn That-on bloodclothwas. breast-on was. His body-on one punā. mēttā. Āru ān nātinī I And anything know-not. was.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Is there a Gond called Māṭā in your village?

Yes, there was, but now there is not.

Where has Mātā gone?

Nowhere. He has died.

Did he die from some disease, or was he killed?

He had no disease. Somebody has killed him.

Who killed him?

I do not know.

The witnesses say that you killed Māṭā. What have you got to answer?

I did not kill him. The evidence is false. I had no quarrel with Māṭā. Why should I kill him?

Was not this axe found in your house?

Certainly. It is my axe, and therefore it was found in my house.

There is blood on this axe.

Yes. I had just killed a goat, and the blood was the goat's.

This cloth was found in your house.

The police officer threw it into my house in my presence. I said to him, 'master' don't do so. I shall come into trouble, and the Government will hang me.' The officer said, 'all people say that you have killed Māṭā, and therefore I have thrown this cloth into your house.'

Did you and Mata take any liquor?

Yes. I used to drink liquor and eat meat every day.

Did you and Māṭā drink liquor at Mansā Kēḍēli's shop on the Pōrā-day?

On the Pōrā-day I was at my uncle Guṭṭā's house and did not go with Māṭā to Mansā's shop. It is all wrong.

Did you see Mātā's body?

The villagers went to see it, and so I also went to see.

Had he any wounds?

Yes; there was an axe-wound on his head, and another on his breast. There was a cloth on his body, and there was blood on it. I do not know anything more.

KŌLĀMĪ, NAIKĪ, ETC.

Kui and Göndī gradually merge into Telugu. Before dealing with that form of speech it will be necessary to give a short account of some minor dialects of Berar and the Central Provinces which occupy a position like that of Göndī between Kanarese-Tamil and Telugu. The dialects in question are the so-called Kölāmī, the Bhīlī spoken in the Pusad Taluqa of Basim, and the so-called Naikī of Chanda. They all agree in so many particulars that they can almost be considered as one and the same dialect. They are closely related to Göndī. The points in which they differ from that language are, however, of sufficient importance to make it necessary to separate them from that form of speech.

KÖLĀMĪ.

The Kölāms are an aboriginal tribe in East Berar and the Wardha district of the Central Provinces. The Rev. Stephen Hislop found them 'along the Kandi-Konda Hills on the south of the Wardha River, and along the tableland stretching east and north of Manikgad, and thence south to Dantanpalli running parallel to the western bank of the Pranhita.' They are now much reduced in number, and most of them are found in the Wardha district. Local estimates give 17,000 as the number of speakers in Wun. At the last Census of 1901, however, Kölāmī was not returned from the district, and the number of Kölāms was only 264. The estimates are therefore certainly above the mark. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

Wardha	•	•	٠	. •	•	•		•	٠	٠		TAL	23,100
Wun Amraoti		:	•	:	:	:	:	:	÷	:	:	:	17,000 4,500

A few speakers are probably also found in Pusad, in the Basim district. The so-called Bhīlī of that district is, at all events, almost identical with Kōlāmī. See below. In the last Census of 1901 Kōlāmī was only returned from Wardha with a total of 1,505 speakers.

The Köläms are usually classed as a Gönd tribe. According to Captain Haig, however, they 'differ considerably from Gönds in appearance, and the Gönds, in Berar, at any rate, do not admit that they are a Gönd tribe, while the Köläms on the other hand shew no anxiety to be considered so, but are rather inclined to repudiate the connection.'

The Kölämi dialect differs widely from the language of the neighbouring Gönds. In some points it agrees with Telugu, in other characteristics with Kanarese and connected forms of speech. There are also some interesting points of analogy with the Toda dialect of the Nilgiris, and the Köläms must, from a philological point of view, be considered as the remnants of an old Dravidian tribe who have not been involved in the development of the principal Dravidian languages, or of a tribe who have not originally spoken a Dravidian form of speech.

AUTHORITIES-

HISLOP, REV. STEPHEN,—Papers relating to the Aboriginal Tribes of the Central Provinces. Edited, with notes and preface by R. Temple. [Nagpore,] 1866. Note on the tribe, Part i, pp. 10 and f. Vocabulary, Part ii, pp. 1 and ff.

HAIG, CAPTAIN WOLSELEY,—A Comparative Vocabulary of the Gondi and Kolāmi Languages. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxvi, Part i, 1897, pp. 185 and ff.

The notes on Kölāmī grammar which follow are based on the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son printed below. They have been supplemented from two other versions of the Parable and a list of Standard Words and Phrases. These materials are not sufficient to elucidate all grammatical points, the more so because only one of the versions of the Parable was accompanied by a translation. The interlinear translation printed below has been supplied by me.

It is, however, possible to ascertain the principal features of the dialect.

Nouns.—The usual suffix of the plural is l; thus, $pais\bar{a}-l$, money; $g\bar{e}tt\bar{a}-l$, feet; $k\bar{e}v-ul$, ears; ture-l, swine. In $b\bar{a}l\bar{a}-k\bar{o}l$, sons, the suffix $k\bar{o}l$ corresponds to Tamil and Kanarese gal, Tulu kulu. In $m\bar{a}sur-ung$, to the men, we apparently have a plural suffix ur, r.

There are no instances in the texts of a feminine noun. The feminine and neuter singular take the same form in Naikī, and this is probably also the case in Kōlāmī.

The dative has the same form as the accusative, the suffix being n or ng; thus, $b\bar{a}l\bar{a}n$, the son; $m\bar{a}kkun$, to the neck; $m\bar{a}surung$, to the servants.

The genitive is formed by adding n, ne, or net, and the locative by adding t. Thus, anne $k\bar{a}k\bar{o}kne$ $b\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, the son of my uncle; $telm\bar{i}$ $gurr\bar{a}mnet$ $kh\bar{o}gir$, the saddle of the white horse; annet $amb\bar{a}n$ $m\bar{a}surung$, to the servants of my father; $k\bar{i}t$, on the hand; $veg\bar{a}t$, in the field ($veg\bar{a}d$, field).

Numerals.— $Ok\bar{o}d$, masc. $\bar{o}k\bar{o}n$, one; inding, masc. iddar, two; $m\bar{u}ding$, three; $n\bar{a}ling$, four; aid, five; $sah\bar{a}$, six; $s\bar{a}t$, seven; $\bar{a}th$, eight; $na\bar{u}$, nine; $dah\bar{a}$, ten; $irv\bar{e}$, twenty. Compare Telugu okati, one; Toda edd, two; $m\bar{u}d$, three; Kanarese and Telugu eidu, five; Telugu iruvai, twenty.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:-

$\bar{a}n$, I. $anu(ng)$, me. $anna$, my.	nīva, iva, thou. inna, thy. im, you.	amd, he; ad, it. amnu, amnun, amnung, him.
ām, we.		amnet, his. aur, they; neut. adā.

The plural forms are apparently seldom used, the singular forms being used instead. Other forms are tanet, his; imd, this; ad, that (neuter), genitive adnet; yend, yer, who? tan, what?

Verbs.—Plural forms are sometimes used in the singular, and vice versá. It is therefore difficult to give instances of all the various forms.

The Verb substantive forms its present tense as follows:-

 $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}t(\bar{u}n)$, I am; $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}t\bar{i}v$, thou art; $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}n$, he is; $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}(t)$, it is. There are no instances of real plural forms in the materials available. The corresponding past tense is:—

Sing.
$$\begin{cases} 1. \ \bar{a}nd\bar{a}n\bar{i}. \\ 2. \ \bar{a}nd\bar{i}v. \\ 3. \ \bar{a}nden. \end{cases}$$
Plur.
$$\begin{cases} 1. \ \bar{a}nd\bar{a}m. \\ 2. \ \bar{a}nd\bar{i}r. \\ 3. \ \bar{a}nd\bar{e}r. \end{cases}$$

KŌLĀMĪ. 563

Finite verbs are similarly inflected. The present tense is also used as a future, and the characteristic consonant of the past tense is d, t. Thus, $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}t\bar{u}n$, I shall make; $k\bar{a}kt\bar{a}n$, I did; sedden, he went. There are very few instances of the third person neuter. Compare $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}nd\bar{a}t$, it is; $p\bar{a}tt\bar{i}n$, it became; $turel\ tinh\bar{a}$, the swine ate. Another future form seems to add d; thus, $g\bar{o}ld\bar{a}t\bar{u}n$, I shall strike; $aur\ g\bar{o}ld\bar{a}r$, they will strike.

The imperative takes no suffix, but r is added in the plural. Thus, $k\bar{o}$, give; tin, eat: $t\bar{o}dur$, put ye.

The negative verb is formed by adding $t\bar{o}ten$, to the base. Thus, $m\bar{o}d\bar{i}p$ - $t\bar{o}ten$, (I) broke not; si- $t\bar{o}ten$, (thou) gavest not, (he) gave not. $T\bar{o}ten$ is sometimes inflected; thus, si- $t\bar{o}t\bar{i}v$, thou gavest not. In other cases the negative verb is formed by adding an e to the base, and using the ordinary personal and tense suffixes. Thus, seren, he went not; siyeten, he gave not.

The base seems to be used as a verbal noun. Thus, enet-lang, saying-of-worthy; $k\bar{a}k$ -eng, in order to do. Another verbal noun ends in $\bar{a}d$ and contains the neuter demonstrative pronoun. Thus, end $\bar{a}k\bar{a}d$, dancing.

The conjunctive participle ends in $n\bar{a}$; thus, $ghum-k\bar{a}k-n\bar{a}$, having collected; $set-n\bar{a}$, having gone; $s\bar{u}tt-n\bar{a}$, having arisen.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows.

[No. 75.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

KÖLĀMĪ.

(DISTRICT WUN.)

Ōkkōn mās änden. Amnung iddar bālāköl āņdēr. Āttān One man was. Him-to twosons were. Them-of tsinnām 'bā, enten, annet vātā anu kor.' Mārī amd avarung the-younger father, said, myshare me give.' Then hethem-to dhan . pāyāknā siten. Mārī könning divasānī tsinnām bālā property dividing gave. Then some in-days he-younger sonnttāna ghumkāknā lava dhāv seden. Attin amd mājiltālā tān allcollecting very far went. Thereheriotously his jingi udāpten. Mārī amd attānā kharchipten, add muluk mahāg property squandered. Then he allthatspent, country famine pāttīn. Ad-mul amnung adchan pattin. Addī vakhōt amd ad fell. Therefore him-to difficulty became. That time hethat muluk ōkōn mäsn-ättin setnā täkten. Amd amnung turel country(-of) one man-with going lived. Hehim swinekāveng tänet vegādung pānākten. Addī vakhōt turel sõse tinhā to-feed hisfield-to sent. That timeswinehusksateādnād amd pōṭā nidipā anāng amnun vātīltīn. Amnung vēnā those-from hefill belly thus him-to it-appeared. Him-to any-one siveten. Mārī amd avaletnā enten, annet ambān māsurung Thengave-not. hecoming-to-senses said. · my father's servants-to pheret ipāte andā, ān kārut tikhātūn. Ān sūltnā am-bānāng much breadis, Ι with-hunger die. I arising my-father-near serātūn amnung venātūn. "bā, ān divamnet innet mutt pāp will-go him-to will-say, "father, IGod-of thyin-presence sinkāktān. In-din-tanat innet bālā enet läng tōten. Innet ōkōn did. This-day-from thyson to-say worthy am-not. Thyone tsākarī-parmān īd."' Mārī amdsültnä tambānāṅg sedden. Mārī servant-like keep." Then hearising hisfather-to went. Then amd dhāv andān ittet amnet tāk ōltnā, lobha vāttīn, amd he far isthenhis father seeing, pitycame, hetültnä amne mākkun āragā-paṭṭīn amnet mukā sumnet. Mārī bālā amd running hisneck-on fell his kiss took. Then that 'bā enten. dīyāmnet innet mutt $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{n}$ pāp kāktān. Indintanat innet said, father God-of thy before I sindid. Henceforward thy

bālā enet-lang tōten.' Māri bān māsarung itten, 'aval āṅgī am-not.' Then the-father son to-say-proper servants-to said, 'good robe kōtnā todeng, amnet kīt mundī, gēttāt kēdl tōdūr. Mārī bringing thathand-on put-on, hisring, foot-on shoes put. Then ān tintnā anand kākātūn. Kāre imdannet kīke tikt-anden, amd eating merry I will-make. Becausethismy son had-died. he tiriknā pānām-edden; bhulilta-anden, amd ōpāten.' Mārī amd anand again life-came; lost-was, hewas-found. Then theymerry kākeng utten. to-make began.

Id vakhöt amnet vadlāk bālā vegāt anden. Māri amd vātnā This time his bigfield-in sonwas. Then coming ellä-merät vätten. Amd mörapākād endākād vintēr. Idvakōt māsūrtānāt house-near came. music dancing heard. Thistimeservants-in-from amd veltölten, 'id ōkōn kukten tanaden?' \mathbf{Amd} amnu itten, 'innet this onecalledhe asked, · what?' Hehim-to said, 'thy tören vāttāndān. Amd im bānu khuśālīnād milālten. Amd younger-brother come-is. Heyour father-to safety-in met. Hemārī laī tineng-unākāt kākten.' Mārī amd kāting vātnā **ōpāl** seren. thenmuchfeast made.' Then he anger-in coming insidewent-not. Mārī bān vākāl vātnā amnu kārapeng lägten. Amd bānung tirik Thenfatheroutsidecoming himto-entreat began. Hefather-to back enten, 'ölür. ān inged varsa innet tsākarī kākātūn. Innet $m\bar{a}n$ ān I said, 'see, so-many years thyservice do. Thyorder \boldsymbol{I} ephundī mödīp-töten. Mārī ān annet sõbatväg-barõbar anand kākeng ōkōd broke-not. ever And Imy friends-with merry to-make oneköve. si-tōten. Amd innet dhan pillāvettā tintarusiten, \mathbf{amd} bālā Hekid gavest-not. thy property harlots eat-made. that thychild vättin-äphund nīv adung-sāṭī · laī tineng-unākāt kāk-āndātīv.' Aphund amd came-then it-for thoubigfeast making-art.' Then heamnun enten. 'bālā, iv bāremās ana-vețā āndātīv: an attānā jingi him-to thousaid. 'son, always me-with art; my property innitī āndāt. Anand kāken idbarōbar. Imde innet thine-only is. to-make this Merry proper. This thyyounger-brother tiriknā pānām-eden; bhulīlta tikt-anden, amd āṇden, amd ōpāten.' dead-was, he again life-came; lostwas, he was-found.

The Bhīls of the Pusad Taluqa of the Basim district, or at least some of them, speak a dialect which is almost identical with Kōlāmī. The number of speakers of Bhīlī in Basim has been estimated at 375. We do not, however, know whether all of them speak the same dialect, and the Basim figures have, therefore, been added to the total for other

Bhīl dialects. The specimen of Bhīlī received from Basim, on the other hand, must be dealt with in this place. In most respects it agrees with the specimen of Kōlāmī printed above.

Pronunciation.—A and \bar{u} are often interchanged; thus, tiksātan, I die; modātūn, I say.

L is sometimes substituted for n; thus, $k\bar{o}stel$, instead of $k\bar{o}sten$, he sent. Final n before a labial becomes m; thus, $b\bar{a}pam$ mutten, he said to his father.

N is often changed to nd; thus, avan and avand, he. Nd is sometimes further changed to d; thus, avanung, avandun, and avadun, to him. These forms throw light on Kölāmī amd, which must be derived from avnd. Compare also Kui $ea\tilde{n}ju$ and Telugu $v\bar{a}du$.

Nouns.—The plural suffixes are l and kul; thus, $ghurr\bar{a}$ -l, horses; $b\bar{a}p\bar{o}$ -kul, fathers. The case-suffixes are not always added in the specimen. On the whole, they are the same as in Kōlāmī. Note, however, the occasional use of a dative suffix ku, $k\bar{u}n$; thus, $b\bar{a}pku$, to the father; $gady\bar{a}k\bar{u}n$, to the servant.

The numerals are the same as in Kölāmī. 'Five' is, however, $p\tilde{a}ch$, and 'twenty' vis. The form iddar, two, is also used to denote a feminine plural. Thus, iddar pilla-kul, two daughters. From this fact we must infer that the genders in Kölāmī are distinguished in the same way as in Telegu.

The personal pronouns are :-

ān, I.	nīv, thou.	avan(d), he.
anung, me.	ining, thee.	avanung, avandu(n),
anya, anned, my.	inna, inned, thy.	avadun, him.
ām, we.	nīr, you.	avande, avaned, his.
ammed, our.	immed, your.	aur, they.
		avared, their.

The forms anned, my; inned, thy, etc., contain the neuter demonstrative pronoun ad, that. In ordinary Kölämi such forms are commonly used in all connexions. In Bhīlī we find forms such as innen $b\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, thy son, where the possessive pronoun agrees with the qualified noun in the same way as in Göndī.

Other forms are adne, its; adav, those things; ivand, this; yend, who? taned, what? etc.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs presents some points of interest.

The present tense of the verb substantive is formed as follows:—

Sing.	1.	and at.	Plur.	1.	andātum.
	2.	andatīv.		2.	andātīr.
	3. m.	aṇḍān.		3.	andār.
	3. n.	andād.			

These forms are the same as those noted above for Kölāmī. In the third person singular neuter we also find andīn, it is.

The past tense is the same as in Kölāmī. Note, however, andun, I was; andum, we were. In tiktānden, he was dead, a form anden for anden, was, seems to be contained. The form is, however, perhaps a noun of agency—one who is dead.

Finite verbs form their present tense from a participle ending in s, and the past from a form ending in t. The various tenses of the verb $g\bar{o}l$, to beat, are given as follows:—

Pres	ent.	1	Past.	Future.			
Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.		
l. gōļsātūn.	1. gōļsātum.	 goṭṭān. 	1. goţţam.	1. gōļātūn.	1. gōļātum		
2. gōļsātīv.	2. gōļsātīr.	2. goţţīv.	2. goţţīr.	2. gōļātī.	2. göļātīr.		
3. gōļsān.	3. gōļsār.	3. goțțen.	3. goţţēr	3. $g\bar{o}ld\bar{a}n$.	3. göldār.		

The s-suffix of the present must be compared with Telugu tsu, tu.

The negative verb is formed from the base without adding any tense-suffixes, or by adding $t\bar{o}d\bar{i}$, not, to the infinitive. Thus, murken, I did not break; $v\bar{a}ren$, he did not come; putted, it was not got; $siyang-t\bar{o}d\bar{i}$, thou gavest-not, he gave-not.

The conjunctive participle ends in $\bar{u}n$ or an; thus, $s\bar{a}h\bar{a}d\bar{u}n$ and saddan, having gone; $innek\bar{a}d\bar{u}n$, having said, etc.

In most of the preceding characteristics and in other important points the Bhīlī of Basim agrees with Kōlāmī, as will be seen from the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

[No. 76.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

SO-CALLED BHILL.

(DISTRICT BASIM.)

Ōkōn iddar mās bālā ander. Sinnām bālā bāpam One man(-to) twosons were. The-younger 80n the-father-to 'bā, mutten, jingānī anya hissā vātīp-kō.' Sinnām said, father, property(-of) myshare divide-give.' The-younger bālā jingānī milapten, dusrē ūru dhāu sedden, udhalvārī jingānī sonpropertygathered, other far villagewent, riotously property attēk nās-gakten. Dukal pattin, paisā kharsipen putted. alldestroyed-made. Famine arose, money to-spend was-not-got. Dodhā mās avandē dhandā-takten. Avan turel mipen kēnut Bigman(-of)heservice-lived. Heswineto-feed field-in köstel. Mārī turel potta tining uttel. avandē. 'potta ān tyahātūn sent. Thenswinehusks to-eatbegan, he, husks Ι will-eat ipāt.' Yēra-nā avandu tāna siyang-todī. Avandun mārī sūd bread.' Anybody him-to anything gave-not. Him-to thensense vattin, 'anye bāpne yallāt naukarnā potang ipāt putsād. Ān came, father's house-in servants-of belly-for breadis-got. Ι kāran tiksātan. Ān bāpam-phōkān sāhādūn bāpam modātūn, with-hunger die. I father-near having-gone father-to will-say, "bā, inna samör diyām hukum puttān, pāp aktān. Innen bālā "father, thybeforeGod's command I-broke, sinI-did. son inne-kādūn anung lajjā vahā. Anung chākardār-langānu āp. ", Bāphaving-said me-to shamecomes. Meservant-like make." Fatherphōkān śedden. Bāp keiken ölten dhāvād, avaddūn mayā nearhe-went. The-father the-son saw distance-from, him-to pityvattīn. Saddan keiken mākad patten, avande mukkā samten. Mārī Having-gone came. son's neck-on fell, hiskiss took. Thenbālā mutten, 'bā, inna samōr diyām hukum puttān, pāp aktān. 80n said, father, thybefore God's command I-broke. sinI-did. Innen $b\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ innekādūn anung lajjā vahā.' Tāk jharān gadyākūn Thysonhaving-said me-to shame comes.' The-father quicklyservants kökten, gadyākūn 'dhadāpan itten, angē ivande mēnōt tapp. Ivande called, servants-to said, 'good cloththis-of body-on put.This-of keit ungāram tapp, gēttāt kērīkul tapp.' Mārī avand majjā ākī hand-on ring put, foot-on shoes put. Thenhemerry to-make

ukatten, 'anya bālā tiktānden prānām-etten; bālā gavat-anden, ōmbāten.' began, dead-man to-life-came; 'my sonmy-son lost-was, was-found.' Sagle lökul ākīn utter. ānand merry to-make peoplebegan.

Dōdhā bālā kēynut anden. Yallang vatten, nāch dhōlagī Bigfield-in was. House-to came, dancemusicheard. Säldäräkün kökten, avandu veltel-ölten, yandin.' 'tān Avan itten, 'inna Servant called, him asked, · what thy is-this.' Hesaid, tören vatten; avan bēs vatten; tineng akten.' Avan younger-brother came; hewell came; feast he-made.' Him(-to)vattīn; vallat varen. Avande bāp vākāl kurten bālān anger came; house-in came-not. Hisfather outsidecame the-son samjipsān. Avand bāpku fan mutten. ining varsha ining dhandā entreated. Hethe-father-to said, ٠I so-many years $thee ext{-}to$ service gaksātan; inna hukum murken. Anya dostā barābar gakten majjā I-do; thyorderbroke-not. Myfriends withmerry to-make mēkē siyang-todī. Avand keike innen nās-gakten, kasbirā paisā goatgavest-not. That thysondestroyed-made, harlots(-to)money seiten, avan vatten, avadūn aktīv.' tining Mārī 'nī avan mutten, gave, hecame, him-for feastmadest.' Thenhesaid, 'thou anya barābar andātīv. Anya jingānī inyetī yandin. Anand gaktat mewithart. Myproperty thineis. Merry to-make tiktanden, panam-etten; bal pāijē. Anya bālā ōmbāten.' gavāt-anden, is-proper. Myto-life-came; son sondead-man, lost-was, was-found.'

NAIKĪ DIALECT.

Naikī is the dialect of the Darwe Gōṇḍs in Chanda. The number of speakers has been returned for the purposes of this Survey as 195. At the last Census of 1901 no separate returns were made, and the number of speakers cannot be great.

The Rev. Stephen Hislop, in his Papers relating to the Aboriginal Tribes of the Central Provinces, Nagpur, 1866, Part i, pp. 24 and ff., describes the Naikade tribe as being most influenced by Hinduism of all Gond tribes, and gives a vocabulary of the dialect in Part ii, pp. 1 and ff.

Naikī is also known from other districts. In the Central Provinces and Berar it is usually stated to be a synonym of Banjārī, and in the Bombay Presidency it connotes a Bhīl dialect.

The Naikī of Chanda is now practically extinct. Two specimens, a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a translation of a popular tale, have been received from the district. They show that the dialect in many important points agrees with Kōlāmī and differs from ordinary Gōndī.

Nouns.—Two plural suffixes are used in the specimens, $k\bar{o}r$ and l. The former seems to be added to nouns denoting rational beings; thus, $p\bar{o}r\bar{a}k\bar{o}r$, children. The suffix l occurs in $turr\bar{e}l$, swine; $sirl\bar{a}$, buffaloes, etc.

The dative and accusative do not appear to be distinguished; thus, $\bar{a}nun$, me, to me. The usual suffixes are n, un, kun. Thus, $p\bar{o}r\bar{i}n$, to the daughter; $b\bar{a}nun$, to the father; $v\bar{a}vart-un$, to the field; $ch\bar{a}karkun$, to the servants. Other forms are $p\bar{o}t\bar{a}l$, to the belly; $b\bar{a}n\bar{e}kil$, towards the father.

The suffix of the genitive is $n\bar{e}$, and the locative is formed by adding $l\bar{o}pul$; thus, $ak\bar{a}s-n\bar{e}$, of heaven; $d\bar{e}sam-l\bar{o}pul$, in the country.

Numerals.—The following occur,—oko, one; $irot\bar{e}r$, neuter yerandi, two; $n\bar{a}li$, four. We have no materials for distinguishing the long and short e and o, and it is, therefore, possible that we must read $\bar{o}k\bar{o}$, one; $ir\bar{o}t\bar{e}r$, two. It will be seen that oko corresponds to Telugu oka, one, while yerandi, two, should be compared with Tamil irandu.

Pronouns.—The regular forms of the personal pronouns are as follows:—

$\bar{a}n$, I.	īn, thou.	aun, he.
ānun, me.	inun, thee.	aunun, him.
annē, my.	innē, thy.	aunē, his.
$\bar{a}m$, we.	īm. vou.	

Compare Kui $\bar{a}nu$, I; $\bar{a}mu$, we; $\bar{\imath}nu$, thou, etc. The same forms are usual in Kölämī.

'She,' it,' is ad, genitive aunē. Add, they, occurs in one place.

Ivun, this, is inflected as aun. Aun seems to be used as a relative pronoun. Thus, aun hissā ānun varlēn ād sī, which share me-to comes that give.

'Who?' is $\bar{e}n$, and $t\bar{a}$ is 'what?' By adding $\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}$, indefinite pronouns are formed; thus, $y\bar{e}n\bar{\imath}$, anyone; $t\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, anything.

Verbs.—So far as we can judge from the specimens, verbs do not change for person; thus, $anl\bar{e}n$, I am, thou art, it is. There are, however, some traces of the principle prevailing in Gōndī and most other Dravidian languages. Thus, $kakn\bar{a}m$, we shall do; $and\bar{e}r$, they were; pattul and pattun, it fell.

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The characteristic consonant of the present tense seems to be l, and that of the past t, which is combined with a preceding consonant in various ways. Thus, $siyl\bar{e}n$, it gives; $sit\bar{e}n$, he gave; $sedd\bar{e}n$, he went; $yend\bar{e}n$, he said. A t-suffix is, however, also used in the present or future tense; thus, $k\bar{a}k\bar{e}nt\bar{a}n$, I am doing; $s\bar{e}rt\bar{a}n$, I will go. Compare Kölāmī.

The personal termination is usually n, but we also find other terminations. Thus, antē, it was; andur, he was, she was; antēr, it was; andēr, they were, etc. The forms ending in r are properly plural forms. $I\bar{u}n$, he said, is probably wrong.

The negative verb is formed by adding \bar{e} to the root. Thus, $s\bar{e}r$ - \bar{e} -n, he went not; siy- \bar{e} - $t\bar{e}n$, he gave not; $m\bar{o}d\bar{a}p$ - \bar{e} - $t\bar{a}n$, I broke not; siy- \bar{e} - $t\bar{u}n$, thou gavest not. Compare

The root alone is used as an imperative; thus, $s\bar{s}$, give; $\bar{s}d$, put. $\bar{A}yk\bar{e}k\bar{a}d$ is translated as 'let us see.' Negative imperatives are $t\bar{a}bg\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, he should not put; $jhagd\bar{s}ln\bar{e}r$, do not quarrel.

The suffix of the infinitive is n or l; thus, $m\bar{e}p\bar{e}n$, in order to feed; $end\bar{e}n$ - $s\bar{a}t\bar{i}$, saying-for; $kak\bar{e}l$ and $kakk\bar{e}n$, to do. Compare Kölämī.

The conjunctive participle ends in tun, un; thus, jamāktun, having collected; seddun, having gone; tinnun, eating. Other participles are karūktu, having called; tinnun and tindunu, eating; tinchin, eating; aḍsīn, playing; tōnān, taking. Kaktēn in kaktēn anlēn, I have done, and similar forms are apparently nouns of agency. Thus, pāp kaktēn anlēn, I am one who did sin.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

NAIKĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

SPECIMEN I.

Oko mankyākon irotēr pērākēr andēn. Aunē-lōpul lakkā bānun One man-to sons were. Them-in the-younger futher-to yenden, 'bā, aun dhan-sampat hissā ānun varlēn ād sī. ' Mang said, 'father, which property-wealth-(of) share me-to comes that give.' aunas aun sampat vātā-kāktun sitēn. Mang angun bōa eddūn he to-him property share-making gave. Thenfew days having-become porā ittēn khōmbād dēsāmtun seddēn, ajuk attān bēnāk jamäktun the-younger son all having-gathered far country-to went, andthere evil kharcha-kaktēn apal sampat udāptēn. Mang aun itten kharchipten, expenditure-made hisproperty squandered. Then allspent, ā dēśām-löpul phari mahāg pattul. Ādi-yauga-lopul aunun adchan thatcountry-in bigfamine fell. That-reason-in him-to difficulty pattun. Ad vaktun aun $\bar{a}d$ dēśām-lōpul oko mankyākani seddun fell. That time-at he thatcountry-in one man-near having-gone andēn. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ aunun turrel mēpēn āplē vāvartun sortan. Atrō turrēl remained. He him swine to-feed his field-to sent. Then swine aun pollē tińchinante aunē-lopul aunun āplē pottā indutpēn indēn which husk eating-were that-on him-to hisbelly will-fill saying aunun vātāytun. Ajuk yēnī aunun tāni sīyētēn. Mang aun suddhin him-to it-appeared. anyone him-to anything gave-not. And Thenhesense-on vätten yenden, 'annē bānē chākardārākun ettē bharpūr ātl antē. came said. 'my father-of how-many servants-to sufficient breadwas, ajuk an sākālā tikēntān. suyitēn āplē bānēkil sērtān $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{n}$ ajuk aunun I hunger-with am-dying. I arising my father-to gohim-to ān entān, "arē bā, ān akāsnē urpatlyā ajuk inē murton pāp kaktēn I say, "O father, I heaven-of againstand thy face-to sindoeranlēn. Inditla inē kikēn eṇḍēn-sāṭī ānun yaug nāhĩ. Āplē oko Henceforward thy am. sonsaying-for me-to fitness not. Your one chākrā-lāik ānun id."' Mang suyitēn āplē bānēkil seddēn. aun Atrō servant-like me keep." ' Then he arising his father-to went. Then khōmbāḍ antē ittē-lōpul aunē aun aunun aiktēn lõbheddūn ajuk aun bān he far wasthat-in hisfather him saw pity-coming and tutēn aunē gudungā-lopulu mitī tāptēn, ajuk aunē chumā ēktēn. ran hisneck-on embracing struck, and his kisstook.

urpatlyā inē murton 'bā, akāsnē aunun eņdēu, pōrā Mang presence-in againstthyfather, heaven-of him-to said, the-son Then inē kikēn endēn-sātī anun inditlā ajuk kaktén anlēn, ān pāp saying-for me-tohenceforth thy son and. doer am, sinI chākrākun iduktēn, 'chānglē jhagā köttun āplē nāhĩ.' bān Par yaug cloth bringing said, ' aood the-father servant-to hisnot. But fitnesskāl-lōpul jōdē tāpp. ajuk kayi-lopul ungryam Ajuk iunē tāpp. ivunu foot-on shoes put. hand-on ringand hisAnd put. this-to tiktēn iun annē pōrā Tāndun, kā kaknām. majā tinnun Mang āpan deadBecause, thatthismyshall-make. eating feast Then we sāpdiltēn. ajuk davdiltēn andēn, aun eddēn; maltun jitē anden, aun was-found.' helost was, became; and alive again was, he lagtēn. kakēl majā Atrō add to-make began. merry Then they

Mang aunu vattēn anden. vāvar-lōpul aunē vadil kikēn vaktun Ād Then hecamewas. field-in sonat-time his bigThatAtro chākar-lopul vēndēn. $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{d}$ apad-mērān vattēn, vājā ajuk aun Then servants-in heard. music anddancinghe house-near came, iduktēn kī, tāndēn?' Aun aunun 'id pusāyitēn, karūktu aun okkon saidthat. him-to this what-is?' Heasked, calling heone sukhāchā mirāitun, inē bānun ajuk aun tölen vattēn, 'innē this-for having-met, safely thyfather-to and he came, brother'thu sērēn. löpul rāgunu vattēn aun kaktēn.' $Atr\bar{o}$ pangat phar aun inside went-not. cameThen he anger-to made.' feastbighe bānun samjiptēn. Pan aunē vattēn aunun bāhēr bān Iūn-sātin aunē entreated. But his father-to father himoutside camehisTherefore kākentān, ajuk chākrī innē vars 'aik, ān ingon kī. sitēn utar andservice thyso-many years ·lo, Ithat, answergavedősta-baróbar majā āplē etros modapēttan, vetrō ān ādnyā ān innē Ι myfriends-with merry stillbroke-not, command I ever thy Ajuk aun innē siyētun. piyētē annun etrō mhūn īn kakkēn hethy gavest-not. And kidever might-make saying thoume-to kikēn vatten, id innē aun tindunu surtē. kalātinē barōbar sampat came, this thy squandered, thateating with property harlots andēn, ' porā, Atrō aun aunun kaktēn.' pangat aunē-sātī phar atro said, son, him-to madest.' Then he greatfeast him-for thouthen innēd anlên. ittēnā sampat Ajuk annē anlēn. hamēśā annē barōbar īn property is. thine allwith art.Andmy always thou tölen kã-kĩ id innē yaug anter, majā ajuk khushī kakkēn id Pan brotherthy because this merry to-make this fitwas, Butandsāpdiltēn. tiktēn aņdēn, aun partun jitē yedden; ajuk harpiltēn aņdēn, aun was-found.' was, again alive became; and lostwas, hedead

[No. 78.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

NAIKĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

SPECIMEN II.

A POPULAR TALE.

Oko. mankyākon irotēr lakkā pörākör andēn, oko põrā ajuk oko One man-to two small childrenwere, one boy and one pōrī. Pōrō aunu chhalla phari chokkōţ andur, pōrī sāvatāng andur. girl. Boy he appearance very goodwas, girlcommon was. Oko. pōd at irotēr pōrākōr ārasā-mērān ādsīn ander, pōrā Onedaythose twochildrenglass-near playing were, boy pōrīn yantēr, 'ari, id ārasā-lōpul ām āykēkād, chokkōt ēn girl-to said, 'well, this glass-in we will-see, handsome whochovaylen.' Pörin ād kharāb anlēn. Inunē samjiltun kī, appears.' Girl-to thatbadis.To-her it-appeared that, 'aun id ānun inbarēntotēn iūn.' Mang idd bānē mērān sēdun · he thisme to-lower said. Then she father near having-gone tōlēnē garhān iduktēn, enlēn, 'bā, ārasā-lopul chhallā aiktān brother-of complaint said, says, father, glass-in figureseeing samādhān pāvāytunē idd bāykōnē kām. Ōnē-lōpul mankyāk jīyām satisfaction is-felt this women-of work. That-on man mind tābgārē.' $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{\bar{a}n}$ pōţāl irotērun sumtēn annun samjiptēn. should-not-put.' The-father both belly-to tookthem entreated. Aun endēn. ' pörākör, jhagdilner. im Inetlā īm irotēr rojja Hesaid, 'children, quarrel-not. you Hence you both daily ārasā-lōpul āik.' glass-in look. Pori.— Bā. Somā gavadyak pāl sumtun kōtēn antēn. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ Daughter.-Father, Soma milkman milktaking bringing Hewas. yanten, ettē. pāl sīvān ?' said, how-much milkshall-give? Bān.- Pōrī, aunu iduk kī, 'inēn ār-sōlam pāl ērāl, Father .- Girl, him-to 8ay that, to-day one-seer milkenough, vēgēn yerandi sēr tōnān vā.' to-morrow twotaking seer come.'

korten?'

Вā, Pori. whence brought?' milkman milkDaughter.—Father, khuţēl antē, sirlā aunē apāţ Ban.- Inun thāvkā kā buffaloes thathis house cows are, Father. - Thee-to known not korten. aun pāl pustun antē. Aunē drawing brought. milkhe Their are. sir siylēn, ajuk yettē khutel pāl Bā, Pori.—

pāl

yadādīn

buffaloand Daughter.—Father, milkgives, how-much cow

gavadyāk

siylen? yettē pāl milk gives ? how-much

siylēn, pāl yerandi sērla yerandi khutel Bān.— Oko oko milkgives, two twoseercow Father.—One one

siylen. ajuk \sin nāli nāli buffalo four gives. four and

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A certain man had two small children, a son and a daughter. The son was very good looking, the daughter was not more beautiful than usual. One day they were both playing near a looking-glass, and the boy said, 'well, let us see in the glass which of us looks best.' The girl disapproved of this thinking that he only said so in order to disgrace her. She then went to her father and complained of her brother. She said, 'to feel satisfaction from looking into the glass is the business of women. Men should not give their mind to it.' The father embraced them both, remonstrated with them, and said, 'do not quarrel, my children. Henceforth you should both daily look in the glass.'

The daughter said, 'Somā, the milkman, has brought milk. He asks how much he shall give us?'

The father answered, 'my daughter, tell him that one seer will do to-day. To-morrow he must bring two.'

Said the daughter, 'father, whence does the milkman bring the milk?'

Said the father, 'don't you know, he has cows and she-buffaloes in his house, and he milks them?'

The daughter asked, 'father, how much milk does a cow give, and how much a buffalo?'

Said the father, 'each cow gives two seer, and each buffalo four.'

TELUGU.

Telugu is the principal language of the Eastern part of the Indian Peninsula from Madras to Bengal, and it is spoken by about 20 millions people.

The language is called Telugu or Tenugu. Formerly it was often called GentooName of the Language. by the Europeans. Gentoo is a corruption of the Portuguese
gentio, a heathen, and was originally applied to all Hindus
as opposed to the 'Moros' or Moors, i.e. the Muhammadans. Another name is Andhra, which word is already used in the Aitareya-Brāhmaṇa to denote an Indian people.
The Andhras are also mentioned in the Asōka Inscriptions (3rd century B.C.). Pliny
calls them Andarae. We do not know anything about the origin of this last name.

The people themselves call their language Telugu or Tenugu. This word is generally supposed to be a corruption of Sanskrit Trilinga. It is explained as meaning 'the country of the three lingus,' and a tradition is quoted according to which Siva, in the form of a linga, descended upon the three mountains Kālēśvara, Śrīśaila, and Bhīmēśvara, and that those mountains marked the boundaries of the Telugu country. In favour of this derivation other forms of the word, such as Telunga, Telinga, and Tenunga are urged, and it is pointed out that Trilinga, in the form Τρίλιγγον occurs in Ptolemy as the name of a locality to the east of the Ganges. Other scholars compare Trilinga with other local names mentioned by Pliny, such as Bolingae, Maccocalingae, and Modogalingam. The latter name is given as that of an island in the Ganges. Mr. A. D. Campbell, in the introduction to his Telugu grammar, suggested that Modogalingam may be explained as a Telugu translation of Trilingam, and compared the first part of the word modoga, with mūduga, a poetical form for Telugu mūdu, three. Bishop Caldwell, on the other hand, explained Modogalingam as representing a Telugu Mudugalingam, the three Kalingas, a local name which occurs in Sanskrit inscriptions and one of the Purā-Kalinga occurs in the Aśoka Inscriptions, and in the form Kling, it has become, in the Malay country, the common word for the people of Continental India.

All these derivations are based on the supposition that Trilinga, and not Telugu, is the original form of the word. This supposition is, however, just as improbable as the derivation of Tamil from Dravida. The old Aryan name for the Telugu country seems to be Andhra, and the replacing of this term by Trilinga seems to be due to an adaptation by the Aryans of a Telugu word. Such a word could probably only be borrowed through the medium of a Prakrit dialect, and in the Prakrits we must suppose the form to have been Telinga. It seems probable that the base of this word is teli, and that nga, or gu, is the common Dravidian formative element. At all events, the derivation from Trilinga is so uncertain that it cannot be safely adhered to. A base teli occurs in Telugu teli, bright; teliguta, to perceive, etc. But it would not be safe to urge such an etymology. Telugu pandits commonly state Tenugu to be the proper form of the word, and explain this as the 'mellifluous language,' from tene, honey. The word Kalinga might be derived from the same base as Telugu kaluguta, to live to exist, and would then simply mean 'man.'

Under such circumstances I think we had better follow the opinion held by C. P. Brown, who rejected all etymologies of the word which had hitherto been brought forward, and regarded the word as not derived from any known root.

TELUGU. 577

In the Tamil country, the Telugu language is known as Vadugu, the northern language, from vada, north. Vadugu is apparently derived from vada in exactly the same way as Telugu from teli. From Vadugu is derived the names Waruga in old German books, and Badages which was used by the early Portuguese and in the letters of St. Francis Xavier.

Area within which spoken.

Barwa in the Ganjam District in the north to near Madras in the south. From Barwa the frontier line goes westwards through Ganjam to the Eastern Ghats, and then south-westwards, crosses the Sabari on the border of the Sunkam and Bijji Talukas in the Bastar State, and thence runs along the range of the Bela Dila to the Indravati. It follows that river to its confluence with the Godavari, and then runs through Chanda, cutting off the southern part of that district, and farther eastwards, including the southern border of the district of Wun. It then turns southwards to the Godavari, at its confluence with the Manjira, and thence farther south, towards Bidar, where Telugu meets with Kanarese. The frontier line between the two forms of speech then runs almost due south through the dominions of the Nizam. The Telugu country further occupies the north-eastern edge of Bellary, the greater, eastern, part of Anantapur, and the eastern corner of Mysore. Through North Arcot and Chingleput the border line thence runs back to the sea.

Telugu is bordered on the north by Oriyā and the Halabī Dialect, Göndī and Linguistic Boundaries.

Marāthī, on the west by Marāthī and Kanarese, and on the south by Tamil.

Telugu is not a uniform language over the whole territory where it is spoken as a vernacular. The dialect spoken in the Northern Circars is usually considered as the purest form of the language. We have not sufficient materials for sketching out the dialectic varieties existing in the various localities. Most of them do not fall within the scope of this Survey. The dialects known from Northern India do not differ much from the Standard form of the language. In Chanda, for instance, the local Telugu is known under several denominations such as Kömtāu, Sālēwārī, and Gōlarī. In reality, however, the difference in phonology and inflexional system is so unimportant that these local forms scarcely deserve the name of a dialect.

Caste dialects of Telugu are also spoken in the Kanarese country and in Bombay. Three such dialects have been returned for the use of this survey, Bēradī and Dāsarī from Belgaum, and Kāmāṭhī from Bombay Town and Island. A similar dialect is the so-called Vadarī, spoken by a vagrant tribe in the Bombay Presidency, Berar and other districts. None of them, however, differs much from the ordinary form of the language.

On the other hand, the difference between the conversational language and the literary form is considerable. This point will be mentioned in connexion with Telugu literature in what follows.

The greatest part of the speakers of Telugu live outside the territory included in the operations of the Linguistic Survey. It is only from the Central Provinces and the Berars that estimates of the number of speakers have been made for the purposes of this survey. For the other districts the figures given below have been taken from the reports of the Censuses of 1891 and 1901.

The number of speakers of Telugu in those districts in which it is the home language may be estimated as follows:—

						Censu	s of 1891.	Cens	us of 1901.
Central Provinces							99,527		79,927
Chanda .						69,000		71,789	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
Bastar .						30,527		8,138	
				*		99,527		79,927	
Berar, Wun .	•		٠.				28,750		23,006
Bengal Presidency							11,632		14,226
Cuttack .						4,800		6,292	
Puri .				•		4,307		4,150	
Orissa Tributar	v Stat	es				2,525		3,784	
			-	10	-				
						11,632		14,226	
Madras Presidency		`.		2	1000		12,017,002	100000000000000000000000000000000000000	12,575,079
Ganjam .						722,287		342,910	12,010,010
" Agency						3,366		5,864	
Vizagapatam						1,881,678		1,999,791	
	gency	7				113,052		153,168	
Godavari .						1,914,769		2,099,417	•
" Agend	y					96,784		119,503	
Kistna .	•					1,739,326		2,015,815	
Nellore .						1,364,445		1,385,097	
Cuddapah						1,139,891		1,160,567	
Kurnool						717,140		763,085	
Bellary .						267,327		282,791	
Anantapur		٠.				570,921		633,796	
Chingleput						242,737		312,946	
North Arcot						852,880		856,480	
Salem .						360,915		416,120	
Banganapalle						28,021		26,139	
Sandur .						1,463		1,590	
					_			2,000	
						12,017,002		12,575,079	
Hyderabad .							5,031,069		5,148,302
Mysore							751,000		835,046
Territoria (1900/200) (190) (190)									000,020
					T	OTAL .	17,938,980		18,675,586
									,,

Telugu is also, to some extent, spoken outside the districts where it is a vernacular. The details are as follows:—

5							ensus (of 1891.	Census	of 1901.
Andamans and	Nice	bars						•••		212
Assam .	•							•••		5,259
Baluchistan	•									36
Bengal Preside	ncy									4,454
Berar .		•						14,488	-	12,425
Amraoti						3,	593	•	3,201	12,120
Akola		•				3,	170		3,312	
Ellichpur						1,	225		1,315	
Buldana						 2,	750		1,991	
Basim	•					3,	750		2,606	
									-	
			Car	ried o	ver			14,488		22,386

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,				• 1			Cens	us of 1891.	Cens	as of 1901.
	В	rough	t forw	ard	•	•		14,488		22,386
Bombay Presidency								62,860		109,988
Burma								•••		96,601
Central Provinces								21,295		22,654
Coorg								3,751		2,974
Madras Presidency								1,694,466		1,760,361
Madras .						103,	423		108,496	
Coimbatore						440,	307		468,135	
Nilgiris .							332		4,391	
South Arcot						227,	056		228,260	
Tanjore .							630		94,872	
Trichinopoly						161,	342		169,784	
Madura .						367,	613		394,358	
Tinnevelly						259,	048		259,936	
Malabar .						20,	309		19,587	
South Canara						2,	096		1,340	*
Pudukattai						10,	797		11,066	
Cochin .							087		12,676	
Travancore						5,	426		7,460	
North-West Frontie	r					";			8	203
Punjab										7
United Provinces										640
Baroda								•••		322
Central India .								•••		777
Rajputana .	•		•			•	•			61
					To	TAL		1,796,860		2,016,974

The figures returned for the smaller sub-dialects are as follows:-

						Ce	ensus of 1891.	Censu	ıs of 1901.
Komtāu							3,827		67
Sālēwārī							3,660		
Golari							25		22
Bēradī							1,250		
Vadari							27,099		3,860
Kāmāthī							12,200		755
•						_			
				To	TAL		48,061		4,704

By adding all these figures we arrive at the following grand total for Telugu and its dialects:—

						Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Telugi	spoken at	home		٠.		. 17,938,980	18,675,586
,,	,, a	broad				. 1,796,860	2,016,974
,,	dialects				•	. 48,061	4,704
							-
4				To	TAL	. 19,783,901	20,697,264
							-

The greater part of Telugu literature consists of poetry and is written in a dialect which differs widely from the colloquial form of the language.

According to tradition the first Telugu author was Kanva, who lived at the court of Andhra-rāya. During the reign of that king Sanskrit is said to have been introduced into the Telugu country, and Kanva is supposed to have dealt with Telugu grammar after the methods of Sanskrit philologists. His work is now lost, and the earliest extant

work in Telugu belongs roughly to A.D. 1050. About that time King Vishnuvardhana, alias Rājarājanarendra (A.D. 1022—1063) was a great patron of Telugu literature, and at his court lived Nannaya Bhatta, the author of the oldest extant Telugu grammar, and, according to tradition, the principal author of the Telugu version of the Mahābhārata.

The bulk of Telugu literature belongs to the 14th and subsequent centuries. In the beginning of the 16th century the court of King Krishna Rāyalu of Vijayanagar was famous for its learning, and various branches of literature were eagerly cultivated. The poet Vēmana is supposed by some authorities to have lived during the 16th century. Bishop Caldwell places him a century later. A collection of aphorisms on religious and moral subjects is attributed to him.

Some particulars about Telugu literature will be found in J. Boyle, Telugu Ballad Poetry. Indian Antiquary, Vol. iii, 1874, pp. 1 and ff.; and G. R. Subramiah Pantulu, Discursive Remarks on the Augustan Age of Telugu Literature. Indian Antiquary, Vol. xxvi, 1898, pp. 244 and ff., 275 and ff., 281 and ff.; Some Mile Stones in Telugu Literature, ib. xxxi, 1902, pp. 40 and ff.

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A .- EARLY REFERENCES.

It has already been stated that the Telugu language has been known under several different denominations. The first name which meets us is Āndhra, under which denomination it is mentioned by the Chinese pilgrim Hwen Thsang who visited India in the 7th century A.D. He tells us that the Āndhras had a language of their own, written in an alphabet which did not much differ from those used in Northern India. The well-known Indian author Kumārila Bhatta mentions the Āndhra-Drāvida-bhāshā.

St. Francis Xavier and the old Portuguese writers mention the Telugu people. According to a note furnished to Bishop Caldwell by C. P. Brown 'the early French missionaries in the Guntur country wrote a vocabulary "de la langue Talenga, dite vulgairement le Badega." Compare Col. Yule's Hobson-Jobson sub voce Badaga.

According to the same authority Gentoo as a name of the Telugu people was first used in A.D. 1648, in Jehan Van Twist's Generall Beschrijfvinge van Indien, printed in Amsterdam.

The earliest account of the Telugu language is given by Frederic Bolling, in a work the full title of which is as follows:—

Friderici Bollingii Oost-Indiske Reise-bog hvor udi Befattis hans Reise til Oost-Indien saa vel og Eendeel Platzers Beskrifvelse med en Andtall Hedningers Ceremonier, baade i deris Guds-Tieniste saa og i deris Ecteskabs Begyndelse end og Negotierne med de regierendis itzige Hollandske Herrers Andkomst, Gage, Promotion og Politie udi Oost-Indien diszligeste Hans Reise til Fæderne-Landen igjen. Kiöbenhafn, 1678. P. 69 deals with 'Cormandel.' We are told that the pagans living near Masulipatnam are called Yantives, and those about 'Tranquebare or Dannisburg' Mallebars. The numerals of the 'Yantives' are:—

TELUGU. 581

John Fryer, who published A New Account of East India and Persia, in 8 Letters; being 9 years' Travels. Begun 1672. And finished 1681. London, 1698, states on p. 33, that 'their language they call generally Gentu... the peculiar Name of their speech is Telinga.'

The Gentoo language is further mentioned in Madras records from 1683 and 1719. See Yule's *Hobson-Jobson* under *Gentoo*.

The 'Talenga' language is alluded to by Hadrianus Relandus, De linguis insularum quarundam orientalium, printed in his Dissertationes miscellaneae. Trajecti ad Rhenum 1706.

Valentijn, Oud en Niew Oost-Indien, Amsterdam 1724-1726, tells us that 'Jentiefs' or 'Telingaas' is the vernacular of Golconda.

Some old authors confound the Telugu spoken on the confines of Orissa with Oriyā, So Adelung in his *Mithridates oder allgemeine Sprachenkunde*... Vol. i, Berlin 1806, p. 232. He states that the language is also called Badaga, and, in Orissa, *Uriasch*. He states that Anquetil Duperron declared the dialect to be closely related to Sanskrit while Sonnerat was unable to find any trace of that language. In other words, Anquetil Duperron meant Oriyā, and Sonnerat Telugu. Adelung further mentions the fact that grammars and vocabularies of the language are found in the collections of manuscripts in the National Library in Paris. The old French vocabulary 'de la langue Telenga, dite vulgairement le Badega,' mentioned above, is probably one of those manuscripts.

The Danish missionary Benjamin Schulze was the first European who made a thorough study of the language. Adelung mentions a 'Warugian' Grammar written in the year 1728, which was probably written by him. He translated the Bible into Telugu, published a Catechismus telugicus minor, Halle, 1746; Colloquium religiosum, telugice, Halle, 1747; Perspicua Explicatio Doctrinae Christianae secundum Ordinem quinque Capitum Catechismi majoris ex Lingua Tamulica in Telugicam versa, Halle 1747, and so forth. He also gave an account of the alphabet in his Conspectus litteraturae Telugicae, vulgo Barugicae, secundum figurationem et vocalium et consonantium, quae frequentissimo in usu sunt, studio omissis, quae in sacro codice non occurrunt, nec non eorundem multifariam variationem hic ordine alphabetico propriis characteribus ab invicem distincte appositam; sicut lingua ipsa in India orientali, nempe Madrastae, et in omnibus regionibus ubi vernacula est, auditur. Halle, 1747.

The language is again mentioned by Father Norbert in his *Mémoires historiques*, Luques (Avignon), 1744.

47 Telugu words, collected by Greg. Sharpe are printed in the Appendix to Thomas Hyde's Syntagma Dissertationum. Oxoniae 1767, and the beginning of the Lord's Prayer, taken from a manuscript by Fra Paolino da S. Bartolomeo, has been printed by Adelung in his Mithridates, Vol. iv., p. 76.

The Telugu language is also alluded to in several books of Travels, e.g. by Anquetil Duperron (1771), Sonnerat (1781), Rennell (1793), Perrin (1807) and others.

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B .- GRAMMARS AND CHRESTOMATHIES.

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DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

Written character. The Telugu alphabet consists of the following letters:—

Vowels.

ಅ	a	ಆ	$ar{a}$	ಇ	i	-ఈ	ī	6	u	ఊ	\bar{u}
ఋ	in	ౠ	ŗū	S	lu	ౡ	$l\bar{u}$	۵	e	ລ	ē
ສ	ai	ఒ	0	ఓ	ō	ఔ	au				

CONSONANTS.

8	ka	அ	kha	κ	ga	နာ	gha			జ	'nа
র্ম	cha	শৃ	chha	ಜ	ja	έγ	jha			쫙	ña
ట	ţa	ఠ	tha	డ	da	ĕ	dha			ಣ	ņa
ಶ	ta	థ	tha	ద	da	థ	dha			శ	na
ప	pa	ক	pha	ಬ	ba	数	bha			మ	ma
OX	ya	8	ra	ಱ	ra	9	la	ð	ļа	వ	va
ৰ্	śа	ಷ	sha	ź	sa	హ	ha			æ.	ksha

The letters xx^{2} y^{2} y^{2}

The harsh $\Leftrightarrow r\alpha$ is only used in the grammatical language. In colloquial Telugu it is pronounced and written $\Leftrightarrow r\alpha$.

The forms of the vowels given above are only used at the beginning of a word. When subjoined to a consonant the vowels are marked as follows:—

a (not expressed), \bar{a} $\overline{\ }$, i $^{\circ}$, $\bar{\imath}$ $^{\circ}$, u $^{\circ}$, \bar{u} $^{\circ}$, ru $_{\circ}$, ru $_{\circ}$, $r\bar{u}$ $_{\circ}$ e $^{\circ}$, e $^{\circ}$, ai $_{\circ}$, o $^{\circ}$, au $^{\circ}$

Thus, $\leq ka$, $\Rightarrow k\bar{a}$, $\leq ki$, $\leq k\bar{i}$, $\leq ku$, $\leq k\bar{u}$, $\leq k\bar{i}$, \leq

When \bar{a} , i, \bar{i} , e, \bar{e} , ai, o, \bar{o} , or au is added to the upper part of a consonant the \sim at the top of the consonant is dropped. Thus, $\approx na$, but $\approx n\bar{a}$.

In using the non-initial vowels there are a few irregularities.

 \neg \bar{a} is combined with the small curve at the bottom of the consonants $\not \wp$ gha, $\not \wp$ jha, $\not \wp$ ma, and $\not \wp$ ya; thus, $\not \wp$ $gh\bar{a}$, $\not \wp$ $jh\bar{a}$, $\not \wp$ $m\bar{a}$, $\not \wp$ $g\bar{a}$. It is written across the upper curve in the letters $\not \wp$ pa, $\not \wp$ pha, $\not \wp$ $sh\bar{a}$, $\not \wp$ $s\bar{a}$. $H\bar{a}$ is $\not \wp$.

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is often combined with the upper part of the preceding consonant; thus, $\approx gi$, chi, $\approx di$, $\approx ri$, etc. Irregular is ∞yi .

When the consonants ∞ ma and ∞ ya are followed by a long $\bar{\imath}$ the vowel is denoted by adding the sign \neg to the lower part of ∞ mi and ∞ yi, respectively. Thus, ∞ \neg $m\bar{\imath}$, ∞ \neg $y\bar{\imath}$.

O and \tilde{o} after $\not = na$, $\not = ma$, $\not = ma$, $\not = ma$, and $\not = na$ are denoted by combining the signs of e and u or \tilde{u} respectively. Thus, $\not = no$, $\not = no$, $\not = no$, $\not = mo$, \not

When two or more consonants come together without any intervening vowel, they are combined into one compound letter, the first of them being written on the line and the rest being subscribed under it. Thus, and dappi, and varnamu. In most cases the subscribed consonants are easily distinguishable. The exceptions are as follows:—

Initial form.	Subscribed form.	Initial form.	Subscribed form.
* ka	Ŀ–	$\propto ya$	8
o ta	_	8 ra	\cup
ъ na	a	e la	m
మ ma		s va	S

Thus, ఆక్క akka, an elder sister; భక్తి bhakti, devotion; ఆన్న anna, an elder brother; తమ్ముడు tammudu, a younger brother; వాక్యము vākyamu, a sentence; తండ్రి tamdri, a father; బండ్లు bamdlu, carriages; ఫార్వము pūrvamu, formerly.

When of ra is the first component of a compound it is often written after the other components. It is then denoted by the sign =, called valapalagilaka. Thus, &‰e-‱, dīrghamu, long.

The forms of the single consonants given above denote the consonant followed by a short a. If it is desired to denote the consonant alone the absence of the short a must be indicated by adding the sign = at the top of the preceding letter. Thus, = k, but = ka.

The sign 2, called *visarga*, only occurs in Sanskrit words. It denotes an aspiration and has been transliterated as h.

The sign o, called sunna, is pronounced as an n before gutturals, an n before palatals, an n before dentals, and an n before cerebrals. In all other cases it has the sound of an m.

The letter c or ", called ardhasunna, ardhānusvāramu, or ardhabinduvu, is only used in the grammatical dialect. Theoretically it denotes the nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel, but practically it is silent.

The characters for the numerals are as follows:-

0	9	3 .	8	K	٤	s	5	٤	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

Pronunciation. The above alphabet expresses the various sounds of the language with so great preciseness that it is not necessary to say much about Telugu pronunciation.

The short final vowel in words such as *gurramu*, a horse, has only about half the length of an ordinary short vowel, and is often dropped altogether; thus, *gurram*, a horse. The same is the case with short unaccented vowels in other positions. Often also their quality is indefinite so that the same word may be written in more than one way. Thus, *ganuka* and *ganuka*, therefore; *kāvali* and *kāvili*, custody, etc.

All long vowels have a slightly drawling pronunciation which is not used in English. The palatals are pronounced as in Marāthī, that is to say, they retain the pronunciation as real palatals before i, \bar{i} , e, \bar{e} , ai, and y. In other cases ch is pronounced as ts and j as dz.

A similar interchange is often found between the dental and palatal s sounds, s being very commonly substituted for s in the same positions as those in which the palatals retain their palatal pronunciation.

Telugu does not properly fall within the scope of the Linguistic Survey. It is not, therefore, possible to go further into detail with regard to pronunciation and grammar. It is hoped that the short grammatical sketch which follows will enable the reader to understand the forms occurring in the specimens. For further information the student is referred to the works mentioned under Authorities above.

The version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which will be found on pp. 590 and ff. below as a specimen of ordinary Telugu has been taken from the Telugu version of the Gospel published by the Bangalore Auxiliary Bible Society, 1889.

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I.-NOUNS.

Gen. Sing.—1st decl. changes du to ni, 2nd and 3rd decl. is same as nom. sing. See Postpositions below.

Acc. Sing.—1st decl. same as gen. sing., 2nd and 3rd decl. adds nu to gen. sing., or (if preceded by i, i, or ai) ni.

Dat. Sing.—Adds ku to gen. sing., or (if preceded by i, i, or ai) ki.

Voc. Sing .- Lengthens final vowel, but changes u to a.

Nom. Plur.-1st decl. changes du to lu 2nd, and 3rd decl.

Gen. Plur .- Changes lu to la. " " la-nu. Acc. Plur. ,, Dat. Plur. " ", la-ku. " " lā-rā. Voc. Plur.

1st Decl. Masculines in du.

Rāmu-du, Rāma.

	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	rāmu-du.	rāmu-lu.
Gen.	rāmu-ni.	$r\bar{a}mu$ - la .
Acc.	rāmu-ni.	rāmu-la-nu.
Dat.	rāmu-ni-ki.	rāmu-la-ku.
Voc.	rāmu-dā.	rāmu-lā-rā.

2nd Deel. Polysyllabic neuters in amu, amu, or emu. Also pendlamu (fem.), a wife.

Gurramu, a horse.

	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	gurramu.	gurramu-lu.
Gen.	gurramu.	gurramu-la.
Acc.	gurramu-nu.	gurramu-la-nu

There are often contracted forms of the cases in this decl. Thus ; nom. pl. gurrālu.

3rd Deel. $str\bar{\imath}$, a woman, nom. pl. $str\bar{\imath}$ -lu. Many plurals are irregular. Thus, $ch\bar{o}tu$, a place, nom. pl. $ch\bar{o}t\bar{t}u$.

Many nouns are irregular. Thus, peradu, a yard; gensing, perati; nom. pl. perallu. So most neuter nouns in du and ru. Illu, a house; gen. sing. inti; nom. pl. indlu.

Postpositions are added to the genitive. Example, lō, in; inti-lō, in the house. The word yokka is often added to the genitive without altering its meaning. Thus, talli prēma or talli-yokka prēma, a mother's love.

Gender.—Masculine are words signifying male human beings (including gods). Feminine are words signifying female human beings (includ-ing goddesses). All other nouns are neuter.

In the sing., fem. and neut. are the same. In the plur, mase, and fem. Adjectives do not change for gender.

II .- PRONOUNS.

1st Person-

	Sing.	Plur. 1 (excluding	Plur. 2 (including person
Nom. Gen. Acc. Dat.	nēnu. nā. nannu. nā-ku.	person addresse mēmu. mā. mammu. mā-ku.	ed). addressed). manamu. mana. mana-nu. mana-ku.

2nd Person-

	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	กรียน.	mīru.
Gen.	nī.	$m\bar{i}$.
Acc.	ninnu.	mimmu.
Dat.	nî-ku.	mī-ku.

Proximate Demonstr. This-

	Sing.		Plur.	
	Masc.		Mase, and	Neut.
Nom.	vī-du.	Neut.	Fem.	ivi.
Gen.	vi-ni.	dī-ni.	vī-ri.	vī-ti.
Acc. Dat.	vī-ni. vī-ni-ki.	dī-ni. dī-ni-ki.	vī-ri-n i. vī-ri-ki.	vī-ti-ni. vī-ti-ki.

Remote Demonstr. That, He-

Nom.	vā-du.	adi.	vā-ru.	avi.
Gen.		dā-ni.	vā-ri.	vā-ti.
Gen.	DIG-166.	CC-760.	bu-re.	va - $\iota \iota$.

and so on.

Interrogative Pronoun, who?

	Sing	. 1	Plur.		
	Masc.	Fem. and Neut.	Masc. and Fem.	Neut.	
Nom. Gen.	yeva-du. yeva-ni.	yēdi. dē-ni.	yeva-ru. yeva-ri.	yēvi. vē-ți.	

and so on.

Adjective Pronouns, $\bar{\imath}$, this ; \bar{a} , that ; $y\bar{e}$, which? These are not declined.

Polite forms, $\bar{a}yana$, he; $\bar{a}me$, she; and others. Intensive Forms change the final u or i of a pronoun to \bar{e} . Thus, $n\bar{e}n\bar{e}$, I myself; $m\bar{i}r\bar{e}$, you yourselves; $ad\bar{e}$, that very thing.

Reflexive Pronoun, tanu; gen. tana; acc. tana-nu or tannu; self. Pl. tamaru or tāmu; gen. tama; acc. tammu-nu or tammu.

Relative Pronouns. - There are none. Relative Participles of verbs are used instead.

Pronominal Compounds.—Formed by adding demonstr. pronouns to adjectives, and gen. cases of nouns. Thus, chinna, little; chinna-vādu, a boy; chinnadi, a girl, or (neut.) a little one (e.g., a box). So vanţa, cooking; gen. sing. vanţa : vanţa-vādu, a cook.

A TOLL IN THE TEXT							•	
II.—VERBS.—Ha	rmonic Se	quence.	Penultima	te u of a po	olysyllabio	root be	ecomes i before i, e	or ē, and may
become a b there are three Cor	efore a.	Roots of	second coni	end in yu ;	of third,	in chu.		
Principal Parts-		240000 01						
Tineipat Fairs	-	18	t Conj.	890	2nd Co		3rd (Jonj.
Root.		kott-u, st	rike.		hēy-u, d	0.	rakshints-u, sa	
Infinitive.		kott-a.	*		hēy-a. hēy-u-ţa.		rakshin <u>ts</u> -a (or rakshin <u>t</u> s-u-ta	
1st Verb noun.		kott-u-ta			kēy-a-dan	241.	rakshints-a-da	
2nd do.		kott-a-da	11014.	•	eog a çan		ranoming a qui	1000
erbal Participles—		kott-u-tu			hēs-tu.		rakshis-tu.	
Present. Past.		kott-i.	•		hēs-i.		rakshiñch-i.	
		1011						
Relative Participles Present.	_	kott-u-t-t	nna.	c	hēs-t-unne	a.	rakshis-t-unna	
Past.		kott-i-na			hēs-i-na.		rakshiñeh-i-na	
Indefinite.		kott-ē.		c	hēs-ē.		rakshiñch-ë.	
	· · · ·							
00-1-0	ersonal termi	nations-	nu.		Plur.	1		mu.
Sing 1.			vu.		,,	2.		ru.
,, 2.	(Masc.		du.		"		(Masc. and Fem.	Tu.
3.		nd Neut., I			"	3.	Neut. Pos.	vi.
,, 0.	{		Neg. du.				C " Neg.	vu.
	- T	mi :-	: !	I in the Dres	and P	al Dart	in the Pros Tonco	The other parts
Auxiliary Verb,	unnā-nu, I	m. This	is only use	erbs. Negat	, aud K	. I am n	, in the Pres. Tense.	The other parts
				eros. Negat		, r am 11		
erb Substantive, n	egative, <i>kā-n</i>	u, 1 am no	i•					
egitire Wesh					1 000000 to		10000000	
Positive Verb—		1	t Conj.		2nd C	onj.		Conj.
Progressive Present			-nu, -vu, -0	lu, chēsti	unnā-nu,		rakshistunnā-n	
I am striking, et	•		ıu, -ru, -ru					
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	200	-vi.						
	, .		4-	_7=	t7-ne -t-		rakshistā-nu, e	te.
Habitual Present		țțutā-nu, e	tc.	cues	tā-nu, etc	•	runsussia-mu, e	uc.
Future, I stri shall strike, et	ke or							
shall strike, et	· ·							
Past. 1st, I struck.		koţţinā-nu	, etc.	chēsi	nā-nu, etc	c.	rakshiñchinā-n	u, etc.
Past. 2nd, I struck		L-44242-m2		chēst	i-mi		rakshisti-ni.	
Sin	g. 1	kottiti-ni.		chēst			rakshisti-vi.	
0 M E	2	kottiti-vi.		chēse			rakshinche-ne	
3 M., F.	Pl. 1	koțțe-nu. koțțiti-mi			i-mi.		rakshisti-mı.	
	2	kottiti-ri.		chēsi			rakshisti-ri.	
CM		kotti-ri.		chēs			rakshinchi-ri	
3 { M	Ñ.	kotte-nu.		chēse			rakshiñche-ni	Ł.
							0.10	
		lst	Conj.		2nd Conj.	•	3rd Co	nj.
Indefinite, I would		7		al 34	s-nu.		rakshintu-nu.	
strike. Sin	g. 1	kottudu-v			u-vu.		rakshintu-vu.	
3 M., I		kottu-nu.	×-		z-nz.		rakshintsu-ne	
5 11.9 1	Pl. 1	kottudu-n	u.	chēt	u-mu.		rakshintu-mu	
	2	kottudu-r		chēt	u-ru.		rakshintu-ru.	
. ()	.,F.	kottudu-r	u.	chēt	u-ru.		rakshintu-ru	
. 3	N.	koţţu-nu.		chēs	u-nu.		rakskint <u>s</u> u-n	tt.
		7		chēw			rakshintsu.	-
Imperative, Strike	thou.	kottu-dā-		chētā			rakshintā-mu	
Let us strike.	Q.	kottandi.	1112-	chēy			rakshintsandi	
Strike ye.		voitaire.		ch sg.	-infere			
Irregular Verb	s-	Root.			Infinit	tive.	Past Verb P	art.
	7.000	avu.	bec	ome.	kā.		ayi.	
		pōvu.	go.		$p\bar{o}$.		pōyi.	12
		vatstsu.	cor		rā.		vachchi.	
		itstsu.	giv		ivva o		ichchi. t <u>s</u> achchi	
		tsatstsu.	, die		tsāva. tsūda.		tsüchi.	No.
		tsütsu. tetstsu.	see hri	ng.	tē.		techchi.	
1. 1. 1.	t	shal postic	inla sente	Similarla the	Prog Ral	Part .	ntunna; the Prog. I	Pres. untunnā.nu
undu, be, has the Hab. Pres. unt	os present ve	he 2nd Per	t unti-	ornmarry the	* 102. IAG	. Last. W	himmen, end ring. I	wiel musem-16th
						m :	Garage Marks	D:
PassiveFor	med by conjug	gating the		ve verbs for			Causal Verbs.	
root padu, fall, w	th the infini	ive. The	the verb	konuta, to	the root.	Aa in	Conj. change w of Thus, kottintsuta,	
initial p of pag	u becomes	o. 111us,	this insta	nce, verbs of	the secon	d con-	beaten. Third Conj	
rakșiñ-t <u>s</u> a-baduța,	to ne saved.	5 50	ingetion of	hange y of th	e root to	8.		lutsuta, to call
			Jugation C	mango y or in		10	pilipintsuta, to caus	
Negative Verb	. Only one (Conjugation	1-	1		-		inn ale
	•	Reg	. Verb.	Past Verb		k	otta-ka, not having st	ruck.
N	eg. Aux.		Pres. and	Verb. N			otta-ka pov-a-damu.	
			ture.		lel. Part	k	otta-ni.	all numbers on
Sing. 1 le		kotta-n		Progress	. Pres.	k	ott-a-damu lē-du, for	an numbers an
, 2 lē		kotta-v		1			persons. koţţutunnā-nu ko	ā-nu. coningate
3 M. lē		kotta-d		1		01	throughout in both n	umbers.
7 F. N. 18		kotta-a		Past.		7.	otta le-du, for all nun	ibers and person
Plur. 1 lā		kotta-t		Indefini	te.	Z-	otta-ka pādu-nu, conji	igated regularly.
o (F.M. 18	-ru.	kotta-i		Imperet	ive. 2 Si	ng k	otta-ku.	
3 N. 18		kotta-		- Porac	1 Pl	k	otta-ka pōdā-mu.	
	also kā-nu.	in-lim-		1	2 Pl.		otta-kandi.	
D.								

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU, (STANDARD DIALECT).

వొక మనుమ్యనికి యిద్దరు కుమారులు వుండిరి.—వారితా చిన్నవాడు, ఓ తండ్రీ ఆ స్ట్రీలో నాకు వెన్నే పాలు యిమ్మని తండ్రితో చెప్పినప్పడు ఆయన వారికి తన ఆ స్థిని పంచి ెపెట్టెను.—కొన్ని దినములైన తరువాత ఆ చిన్న కుమారుడు సమస్త్రమున్ను కూచు౯కొని దూర దేశమునకు (పయాణమై వెళ్లి తన ఆస్తిని దువ్యా పారమువల్ల పాడు చేసేను.—అదం తా ్రవయము చేసిన తరువాత ఆ దేశమందు పెద్ద కరువు కలిగినందున అతడు యుబ్బంది పడసాగాను.—అప్పుడు అతడు వెళ్లి ఆ దేశ్యపులలో వొకనికి లోబడి యుండెను.—అతడు వందులను మేపుటకు తన పాలములలోకి ఆతని వంపెను.—అతడు పందులు తినే పాట్టుతో తన కడుపు నింపుకొనుటకు ఆశవడెను గాని యొవడున్ను అతనికి యేమిన్ని యివ్వలేదు.— అయితే బుస్ధి వచ్చి అతడు నా తండ్రియొద్ద యెంతో మంది కూలివాండ్లకు రొక్టెలు అశిబిస్తారమైయున్నవి ఆయితే నేను ఆకలివల్ల నశించి పోతున్నాను.—నేను లేచి నాతండియొద్దికి వెల్లి, ఓతండి నేను ఆశాశ-యునకు బిరోధము π ానున్ను నీయొదుటనున్ను పాపము చేసియున్నాను.—యికమీదట నీకుమారుడనని ఆనిపించుకొనుటకు యోగ్యుడను కాను నన్ను నీ కూలివాండ్లలో వొకనివలె చేయుమని ఆయనతో చెప్పు-డుగని అనుకొని లేచితగ తం**డియొ**ద్దికి వెల్లేను.—అయితే అత**డు** యింకా దూరముగా వున్నప్పడు అతని తం!డి ఆతని మాచి కనికరించి పరు 🗷 త్తి అతని మొడ్డమీద పడి ఆతని ముద్దు బెట్టుకొనెను.——అప్పడు ఆ కుమా-రుడు, ఓతం[డీ ెనేను ఆశాశ్మునకు విరోధముగానున్ను సీయొదుటనున్ను పాఠము చేసియున్నాను యిక-మీదట నీ కుమారుడనని అనిపించుకొనుటకు యోగ్యాడను కానని ఆయనతో పరికెను.—అయితే తండ్రి, (వధాన వ<u>(గ్ర</u>్రమును తెచ్పి యితనికి తొడిగించి యితని శేతికి వుంగరము పెట్టి పాదములకు చెప్పలు తొడి-గించండి.—మరిన్ని మనము తిని సంభ)మవడుదాము.—యెందుకంేటే యానా కుమారుడు చనిపోయి తిరిగీ (బతికొంను తప్పిపోయి దొరికొంనని తన నౌకరులతో చెప్పెను.—అప్పుడు వారు సంభ)మపడసాగిరి 11

అయితే ఆయన పెద్ద కుమారుడు పాలములో ఖండెను గనుక అతడు వస్తూ యింటికి సమీపించి-గప్పుడు వాద్యమున్ను నాట్యమున్ను విని నౌకరులలో వొకని పిలిచి, యివీ యేమిటి అని ఆడిగెను.— ఆ నౌకరు అతనితో నీ తమ్ముడు వచ్చెను గనుక అతడు సురశ్వీతముగా చేరినందున స్థీ తండి విందుచేయించి-యున్నాడని చెప్పెను.—అయితే అతడు కోవగించి లోవటికి వచ్చుటకు సమ్మతించలేదు గనుక అతని తండి వెలవటికి వచ్చి అతని ఖతిమాలుకొనెను.—అయితే ఆతడు, యిదుగో యిన్ని సంవత్సరములనుంచి నేను నిన్ను సేవిస్తున్నాను నీ ఆజ్ఞను నేను యెవ్పడున్ను మీరలేదు. అయినప్పటికిన్ని నేను నా స్నేహిం తులతో సంఖ మవడేటట్టు నాకు యెన్నడున్ను వొక మేకపిల్లనైనా యివ్వలేదు.—అయితే సీ ఆస్తిని వేశ్యలతోకూడా తినివేసిన యీ సీ కుమారుడు రాగానే పీనికొరకు విందు చేయించితివని తండితో డుత్యు-త్రము చెప్పెను.—అండుకు ఆయన, కుమారుడా నీవు యొల్లవృడున్ను నాతోకూడా ఫున్నాపు నావ-నిఎన్మి సీవెయున్నవి.—మనము సంఖ మవడి సంతోపించుట ఈప్పక్రమే యొందుకంటే నీ తమ్ముడైన యుతడు చనిపోయి తిరిగీ టుత్కెమ, తప్పిపోయి దొరికెవని అతనితో చెప్పిన నేను శి [No. 79.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Voka manushyu-ni-ki yiddaru kumāru-lu vuņdiri. Vāri-lō chinnavādu, 'ō man-to two · sons were. Them-among the-younger, 'O āsti-lō nā-ku vachchē pālu yimm'-ani tandrī tandri-tō cheppin-appudu father property-in me-to coming share give'-so the-father-to said-when āyana vāri-ki āsti-ni pettenu. Konni tana pańchi dinamul-aina them-to his-own property having-divided put. A-few days-having-become chinna kumārudu samastamu-nnu kūrtsukoni dūra dēśamu-na-ku after that younger son all-together having-gathered far country-to prayāņam-ai velli tana āsti-ni durvyāpāramu-valla pādu-chēsenu. Ad-antā having-journeyed having-gone his property bad-behaviour-by waste-made. That-all taruvāta ā dēśam-andu pedda karuvu vrayamu-chēsina kaligin-anduna expending-having-made after that country-in mighty famine having-arisen-because atadu yibbandi pada-sāgenu. Appudu atadu velli dēśa-sthu-la-lö strait to-suffer-began. Then he having-gone that country-dwellers-among lōbadi-y-undenu. Atadu pandula-nu mēputa-ku tana polamu-la-lō-ki voka-ni-ki one-to having-submitted-was. Hetending-for his pigsfields-in-to pottu-tō tana kadupu nimpu-konuta-ku āśaatani pampenu. Atadu pandulu tinė swine eating husk-with his belly filling-to padenu, gāni yevadu-nnu atani-ki yēmi-nni yivva-lēdu. Ayitē buddhi vachchi atadu, any-one him-to anything gave-not. But sense having-come he, 'nā taṇḍri-y-odda yentō-mandi kūli-vāṇdla-ku rotte-lu ati-vistāram-aiy-'my father-near kow-many-persons servants-to breads very-plentiful-having-becomeunnavi, avitē nēnu ākali-valla naśińchi pot-unnānu. Nēnu lēchi hunger-with being-ruined going-am. I having-arisen my tandri-y-oddi-ki velli, "ō taṇḍrī, nēnu ākāśamu-na-ku virōdhamugānu nnu nī father-near-to having-gone, "O father, against-and I heaven-to yeduţanu-nnu pāpamu chēsi-y-unnānu. Yika-mīdaţa nī kumārud-an-ani anipintsusin having-done-am. Henceforth thy son-I-so to-bebefore-and kūlivāndla-lō vokani-vale, chēyum"-ani konuta-ku yōgyudanu kānu; nannu nī worthy-man am-not; me thy servants-among one-of-like, lēchi tana tandri-y-oddi-ki vellenu. āvana-tō cheppudun'-ani anu-koni I-shall-say'-so having-considered having-arisen his father-near-to Ayitē atadu yinkā dūramugā vunn appudu atani tandri atani kanikarińchi <u>ts</u>üchi being-at-time his father him having-seen having-pitied But far

atani muddu bettu-konenu. Appudu padi parugetti atani meda-mīda Then having-fallen him kissgave. that having-run his neck-on kumārudu, 'ö tandrī, nēnu ākāsamu-na-ku virodhamugānu-nnu \mathbf{n} yedutanu-nnu contrary-and thee before-and heaven-to 'O father, chēsi-y-unnānu, yika-mīdaţa nī kumārud-an-ani anipintsu-konuta-ku pāpamu to-be-called henceforth thy 80n-I-80 having-done-am, sināvana-tō palikenu. Ayitē tandri, 'pradhāna vastramunu kān'-ani yōgyudanu Butthe-father, 'best clothhim-to said. fit-man I-am-not'-so todigińchi vita-ni chēti-ki vungaramu petti yita-ni-ki having-brought this-man-to having-put-on this-man's hand-to a-ring having-put tini sambhrama-papādamu-la-ku cheppu-lu todigintsandi. Marinni manamu having-eaten shall-becomefeet-to put-ye. Moreover weyī nā kumārudu tsani-pōyi tirigī bratikenu; tappidudāmu. Yenduk-anțē, having-died again lived; Why-on-saying, this my sonmerry. doriken'-ani tana naukaru-la-tō cheppenu. Appudu vāru sambhrama-padasaid. Then they merry-to-becomebeen-lost was-found'-so his servants-to sāgiri. began.

Ayitē āyana pedda kumārudu polamu-lo vundenu. Ganuka atadu vastū Therefore Buthis elder sonfield-in was. hecoming yinti-ki samipińchin-appudu vadyamu-nnu natyamu-nnu vini naukarudancing-and music-and having-heard servantshouse-to approaching-time-at yēmiţi?' ' yivi ani adigenu. Ā la-lō voka-ni pilichi, having-called, 'these-things of-what-kind?' 80 asked. That among one naukaru atani-tō, 'nī tammudu vachchenu ganuka atadu surakshitamugā thy younger-brother therefore him-to, camesafely chērin-anduna nī tandri vindu chēyinchi-y-unnād'-ani cheppenu. feast having-returned-on-account-of thy father having-made-is'-so said. lopa-ți-ki vatstsuța-ku sammatintsa-ledu, ganuka Ayitē atadu kopagińchi having-become-angry insideto-come did-not-agree, thereforehe atani tandri velapatiki vachchi atani batimalu-konenu. Ayite atadu, 'yidugo, vinni 'lo, so-many his father outside-to having-come him entreated. Buthe, samvatsaramu-la-nuńchi nenu ninnu sevistunnanu; ni ajńa-nu nenu yeppudu-nnu serving-am; thy command years-from Ayinappatikinni nēnu nā snēhitu-la-tō sambhrama-padēt-attu mīra-lēdu. did-not-transgress. Thus-being-though I my friends-with merry-to-become-in-order nā-ku vennadu-nnu voka měka-pillan-ainā yivva-ledu. Ayite nī āsti-ni vēśvadidsi-not-give. But thy property harlotsone goat-young-even me-to ever tini-vēsi-na yī nī kumārudu rā-gānē la-tō-kūdā with-together having-eaten-having-thrown this thy son coming-as-soon-as this-man'skoraku vindu cheyinchitiv'-ani tandri-to pratyuttaramu cheppenu. Andu-ku ayana, sake-for feast thou-madest'-so father-to answer he-made.

'kumārudā, nīvu yell-appudu-nnu nā-tō-kūḍā vunnāvu; nā-v-anni-nni . 'son, thoualwaysme-with-together art; my-all-things-even ni-v-aiy-unnavi. Manamu sambhrama-padi santoshintsu-ta yuktamē; thine-having-become-are. Wemerry-having-become to-be-joyful is-proper; yenduk-antē, nī tammu-d-aina yitadu <u>ts</u>ani-pōyi tirigī bratikenu; why-if-you-say, thy younger-brother-being this-man having-died again doriken'-ani atani-tō cheppen-anenu. tappi-pōyi having-been-lost was-found'-so him-to he-said-spoke.

KŌMŢĀU DIALECT.

The bulk of the Telugu-speaking population of Chanda is reported to use the standard form of the language. It has already been mentioned that several minor dialects have been reported to exist, such as Sālēwārī, the dialect of the weavers, Kōmṭāu, the language of the Kōmṭīs or shopkeepers, Kāpēwārī, ascribed to a certain class of agriculturists, Gōlarī spoken by the nomadic Gōlars or Gōlkars, a dialect called Manthanī, and so forth.

Of these only Sālēwārī, Kōmṭāu, and Gōlarī have been returned for the purposes of the Linguistic Survey. The revised figures are as follows:—

Kömţāu.					•	•	•	•	•	•			3,827
Sālēwārī						•	•			•	•		3,660
Gōlarī .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		25
				8						To	FAL	•	7,512

At the last Census of 1901, 22 speakers of Golari were returned from Chanda, and it is stated that the dialect spoken by other castes such as Komtīs, Sālēwārs, etc., is identical. Komtāu was returned as a Telugu dialect from Assam. The number of speakers was 11. If we add 56 speakers of Komtī returned from the Bombay Presidency we arrive at a total of 67. It is, however, not certain that these individuals speak a form of Telugu. The so-called Golari, Komtāu, etc., of other districts is apparently a Kanarese dialect. Compare pp. 386 and ff. above.

No specimens have been received in the so-called Sālēwārī, and there is no reason to suppose that the Sālēwārs of Chanda speak a Telugu dialect different from that current among their neighbours.

The so-called Komṭāu and Golarī of Chanda are, according to specimens forwarded from the district, identical and do not differ from the ordinary Standard Telugu.

Forms such as annadu instead of annādu, he said; <u>tsastā</u> instead of <u>tsastānu</u>, I die; badadi instead of padinudi, it fell; are probably used everywhere in the Telugu territory, and they cannot be urged as reasons for separating those forms of speech as real dialects of Telugu.

The numbers of speakers of all these so-called dialects can therefore safely be included in the total given for Standard Telugu above.

It is, accordingly, of no interest to give particulars about the Telugu spoken by the various classes mentioned above. It will be quite sufficient to print the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son professing to be written in Kōmṭāu, in order to show that we have here simply to do with ordinary Telugu.

[No. 80.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

So-called Kömtau Dialect.

(DISTRICT CHANDA.)

Oka manishi-ki viddaru pillagandlu vundiri. Vāndlō chinnavādu One man-to tvoosons were. Them-among the-younger 'tandri, yēdō mālamata-di nā-ku vatstsa-valadi adi yivvu.' tandri-tō antādu, the-father-to says, 'father, what property-of me-to to-come-ought that give.' Venaka vādu pillani-ki dhanamu pañchi ichindu. Venaka konni devasā-la-ku he the-boy-to property dividing gave. Thensomedays-in chinna-pilladu anta sommu dzamā-jēshi dūra dēśā-na-ku pōyinādu, vinka the-younger-son all property having-collected far country-to went, andakkadā avitsāramu-tō nadchi tana sampattu pādu-gottinādu. Tarvātā vādu there inconsiderately behaving his property wasted.Afterwards he antā vodšinanka ā dēśamu-lō lāvu karuvu badadi anduku, vāni-ki kathinamu spent-after that country-in heavy famine arose because, him-to okka manishi daggira badadi; appudu vādu dēśamu-lō pōyi vunnadu. fell; then he the-country-in oneman near having-gone stayed.Vādē tēnu vāni pandu-lu kāshē-koraku tana chēndlō-ki tōllādu. Appudu pandu-lu He-also then him pigstending-for his fields-in-to sent. tinē-di pottu-tō vādu tana potta nimpu-kō-vale ani vāni-ki ani-piñchindi, vinkā eaten husk-with he his belly to-fill-ought 80 him-to it-appeared, and yevvaru vāni-ki yivva-lēdu. Tarvātā vādu telvi-mīdi-ki vachchi annadu, 'mā anybody him-to gave-not. Afterwards he senses-on-to having-come said, tandri yint-lo yendaru naukara-la-ku pushkalanga annam vunnadi, yinka nenu father's house-in how-many servants-to richlyfoodlēśi nā tandri-dikku-ku poyyēnu vāni-tō anēnu, ākali-tō tsastā. Nēnu I having-arisen my father's-side-to will-go him-to will-say, hunger-with die. "ō taṇḍri, nēnu yīśvaru-ni viruddham nī-mundara pāpam jēsinānu; yikkadi-nunchi now-from "O father, I sindid:Godagainst thee-before kodaku-nu anëtanduku nënu yogyani kanu. Ni okka naukari-vāni-vale nī worthy Thy servant-like thy to-say I am-not. one nangu vuntsu." let-be." me.

KĀMĀŢHĪ DIALECT.

Telugu is spoken by the Kāmāthīs or bricklayers of Bombay and neighbourhood. The figures returned for the use of the Linguistic Survey are as follows:—

Bombay T			_		-			12,000
Poona.	•			•	•	•	•	200
					To	TAL		12,200

This figure is probably considerably above the mark, for at the last Census of 1901 only 755 speakers were returned from the Bombay Presidency, 494 of whom were enumerated in Poona.

The dialect of the Kāmāṭhīs of Bombay has been much influenced by the neighbouring Aryan forms of speech, but is still a pure Dravidian dialect.

Pronunciation.—The vowels are mainly the same as in ordinary Telugu. Sometimes, however, certain changes take place. Thus we find o for e, e.g. rondu, two; \bar{a} or $y\bar{a}$ for \bar{o} , e.g. $l\bar{a}$ or $ly\bar{a}$, in; \bar{o} for $av\bar{a}$, e.g. $chinn\bar{o}du$, a boy; shortening of long vowels, e.g. unnamu for $unn\bar{a}mu$, we are; dropping of short vowels, e.g. undri for $undir\bar{e}$, they were, and so forth.

The palatals are pronounced as in ordinary Telugu. Ch, however, often becomes s; thus, $sast\bar{a}$, Standard Telugu, $\underline{ts}ast\bar{a}nu$, I die.

The cerebral d is interchangeable with r; thus, iddaru, two, iddadki, to both; $m\bar{u}du$ and $m\bar{u}ru$, three, etc. After a nasal, dr often takes the place of d; thus, tendri, Standard tendi, bring.

N and l are sometimes interchanged; thus, $kott\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, you should strike; $iy\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, you should give; lillu Standard $n\bar{\imath}llu$, water.

Initial v is usually dropped; thus, āḍu, he; astadi, it comes; yelli, having gone. Note naukar-gāllu, Standard naukara-vāṇḍlu, servants; uṇḍa-gallā, Standard uṇḍa-valenu, I should be; koṭṭālā, Standard koṭṭa-valenu, I should strike.

Y is often inserted before \bar{a} and a; thus, $undy\bar{a}$, Standard $und\bar{a}du$, i.e. $undin\bar{a}du$, he was; $l\bar{a}$ and $ly\bar{a}$, in, etc.

Inflexion.—The inflexion of nouns is mainly regular.

The pronominal suffix di has a tendency to become the usual suffix of the genitive. Compare devaru-di aparādhī, a sinner against God; sāmi-di pāpam, sin against the Lord.

It should be noted that the Telugu accusative case has been replaced by the dative obviously under the influence of the Aryan idiom. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ -ku $un\underline{ts}u$, let me be; $\bar{a}d$ -ki tandri $s\bar{u}s\bar{a}$, the father saw him.

With regard to the conjugation of verbs we may note that the personal terminations of the first and third persons singular are often dropped, as is also the case in most other forms of vulgar Telugu. Thus, $n\bar{e}nu\ p\bar{o}t\bar{a}$, I go; $\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, he became; $achch\bar{a}$, he came; $undy\bar{a}$, he was.

It is of interest to note that this dialect has adopted the relative construction of the neighbouring Aryan tongues, the interrogative pronouns being used as relatives. Thus, yēmi jindagi astadi adi iyānā, what property will-come, that you-should-give; yappuḍu āḍu suddi mida achchā appuḍu manasulā anakuṇḍyā, when he came to senses, then he thought in his mind, etc.

On the whole, however, the dialect of the Kāmāthīs is the ordinary form of Telugu, as will be seen from the perusal of the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

[No. 81.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

Kāmāțhī Dialect.

(BOMBAY.)

Vakka manaśi-ki iddaru kodaku-lu und-undri. Chinnodu tandri-ki antadu, The-younger the-father-to says, were. man-to twosons One adi nā-ku iyyānā.' Mari tānu adi 'ayyā, nā antu-ku yēmi jindagi astadi father, my share-to what property will-come that me-to give.' Then he that ichchindu. Tödyam dināllu intat-lā chinna kā-lē pañchi iddad-ki that-in the-younger went-not days Fewboth-to having-divided gave. dūram dēśam-ku yelli põindu. kodaku tana-di anta hissa dzamā chēśi all share together having-made far country-to having-gone went. yagara-koṭṭiṇḍu. Yappudu anta mulya madzā-lā Ada anta mulya When all property he-hadhe-wasted. There all property riotousness-in ūra-lyā lau pedda kālam padiņdyā. Appudu tana-ku tiņdi-ki kottindu appudu ä him-to food-for then that village-in very great famine Thenarose. undyā. pōi motādu āyā. Maralā ādu ā ūra-lvā dandyödu dagyara difficulty came. Then he that village-in a-mighty-man near having-gone stayed. Mari ādu ād-ki tana śēnu-lā pandu-lu mēpa-t-anaku tōliņdu. Pandu-lu tinē-ti potṭu eaten husks Swine to-feed his field-in swine Then he potta nimpa-t-anaku tānu kabul āyā ganī adi bī yavvaru iyyaru. tini he ready became but that even any-one gave-not. to-fill having-eaten belly Yappudu ādu suddi mida achchā appudu manasulā 'nā ayvā ana-kundyā, mind-in he-said-to-himself, 'my father's then he senses on cameWhen nimpu-kuntaru, sukangā potta mandi naukir chēśi vanta house-in how-many persons service having-done easily belly filling-for-themselves-are, nā taṇḍri dagyara pōtā lēśi sastā. Nēnu ippudu inkā nēnu ida upāsam having-arisen my father and I here from-hunger die. now "ayyā, mī-dī va dēvaru-dī aparādhī unnānu. Dāniinka nēnu ād-ki anēnu, Therehim-to shall-say, "father, thee-of and God-of sinner Nīvu nā-ku kodaku anapintsu-kuna-t-anduku kānu. lāyak kōsan-ki miThou I-am-not. me worthy to-call-myself your fore tandri dagyar-ki pōyā. Ad-ki lēśi naukarōḍu mēra-gā un<u>ts</u>u."' Appudu Then having-arisen the-father near-to he-went. let-be." likeservant inka gōśā-vachchi tandri rāngā tandri sūśā kodaku dūran-kelli the-father and having-pitied the-father saw coming son far-from kodaku Maralā mudditsu-kunyā. almu-kunyā inka ādi-ki urki the-son Then kissed himembraced andhaving-run

tandri-ki chapyā, 'ayyā, \mathbf{n} mungata nēnu sāmi-di pāpam the-father-to said, father, thee before I the-Lord-of sinchēśinā. Gandukōsan-ki ippudu mikodaku anapintsu-kun-t-anaku nāku did. Therefore now your sonto-call-myself me-to śiggu astadi. Maralā tandri naukar-gālla-ku chapyā kī, ' mañchi shame comes. Then the-father the-servants-to saidthat, "good battalu tendri inka īda-ki todagi-piyundri. Īdi chēti-ki ungram pettundri, bring clotheshim-to andput-on. Hishand-to a-ring put, inka kālla-ku pāvasālu toda-kun-t-anaku iyuņdri, inka manamu tini and feet-to shoes to-put-on give, andwe having-eaten chēśi ānandamu chēstamu, kāraņamu ī $n\bar{a}$ kodaku sachchi having-drunk will-make, joy because this mysonhaving-died poiņdyā, ādu ipoddu lēśi achchindu; ādu kāri-pōiņdyā, gani ipoddu went, came; he to-day alivehe lost-went, butto-day nā-ku dorkindu.' Maralā āllu lau ānandamu cheyya-talagiri. me-to was-found.' Then they much joy to-make-began.

DĀSARĪ DIALECT.

The Dāsarus are wandering beggars in Belgaum. Some of them speak Kanarese and others Telugu. No separate estimates of the number of speakers are available. Specimens have only been forwarded of the speech of the Telugu Dāsarus, and a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son will be found printed below.

It will be seen that the dialect of the Telugu Dāsarus has very few peculiarities of its own. The pronunciation is sometimes different. Thus, the plural suffix ru becomes lu or lu. Compare $m\bar{\imath}lu$ undalu, you are; evalu, who? etc.

The palatal ch is represented by \underline{ts} , ch, \hat{s} , and t; thus, $\underline{ts}\bar{a}kri$, service; vachchi, having come; $\hat{se}\hat{si}$, having done; $tast\bar{a}$, I die.

Other phonetical changes are identical with those occurring in other dialects. Thus we find o instead of e; a instead of o, as in the Kāmāṭhī dialect of Bombay; compare rondu, two; $l\bar{a}$, in; $p\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, I go. L and n are interchanged in $l\bar{o}na$, Standard $n\bar{o}na$, among, etc.

The inflexion of nouns and verbs is mainly regular. Note, however, causatives such as tinipichchi, having caused to eat, having feasted, etc.

It is not necessary to go further into detail. The close agreement of the dialect with ordinary Telugu will appear from the specimen which follows.

[No. 82.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

DASARI DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

Okködokkód manisike iddar maga-pilagāļu uņdli. Vāl-nõna chinnā pilagadu were. Them-among youngest man-totwosons 'tandrī, nī badakal-nona nāke vachchvatti pāla nāke ī.' tana tandrike ane, his father-to said, 'father, your property-in me-to that-may-come share me-to give.' Tandri val-nona tana badaka panchi-ichche. Chinnā pilagadu tana pāla tiskoni Father them-among his property divided. Youngest sonhis share taking dūramu nātka śinā-vaddal āva-lēdu, antatl-nona vadu sana poyyi, far country-to many-days having-gone, became-not, meantimehe vast śēśi tana badak-antā pāda-śēse. Vādu itla śēśina mantke expenditure having-made his property-all wasted. He so having-done afterdēsam-lõna pedd karava padi vānki pyādarkem vachche. Vādu ā that country-in mighty famine falling him-to poverty came. dēsam-lõna oga maniśi pakka tsākri jērē. Ī maniśi vāni pandili mēpadadanki tana country-in one man near service stood. This man him swine to-feed chēnaka tōlē. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{d}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ ākal-gōni kalavalikanti pandi tinēta pottu sudā field-to sent. There being-hungry pangs-becoming swineeatenhusk kadapu nimpakutunde. Āte vānki yavaļ-ninchi ēmī chikak-unde. having-eaten stomach was-filling. But him-to anybody-from anything was-not-found. Itla tōdem vaddal pāye; tana enakaṭi jyalamam neppayyi vādu tana So a-few days passed; his former condition memory-becoming hehis mansal-nõna ane, 'nā tandri pakka uņdēta <u>ts</u>ākri-mandki kadapu niņdi mind-in 'my father near remaining servants-to said, stomachfilling ekkoyitanta iripemu chikatadi. Āte īdā nā-mātranki ākal-gōni so-as-to-exceed-so-much food is-found. But here as-for-myself being-hungry (I)die. Nā lēsi nā taṇḍri-takki poyyi "tandrī, nā dyāvardi karmam tandrī ane, I rising my father-near going may-say, "father, I God-of father-of karmam kat-konn. Nānu nī pilgad-anṭani anipichakonadadānki bāga-lēdu. sin have-got-tied-to-myself. I your son-as to-be-called Nana oga chyākrī-maniśi tiranī nī pakk pettako." Vādu ä-niñchi lēsi servant like your near keep."' Hethence rising his tandri-kādiki vashtepadu tandri dūram-niñchi vāni tūsi antakaraṇam father-near while-coming father distance-from him seeing sympathy producing urta-poyyi paṭakōni muddāde. Appada pilagadu tandrike 'tandri, na ane, running-going embracing kissed. Then 80N father-tosaid, 'father, I

dyāvara mundalā nī mundalā tappa-śēsna. Nana nī pilagan-ant pilavaku.' sin-did. Me your God-of before your before . son-as do-not-call. Dīnki taṇdri tana tsākrī-mandki ane, 'mańchidi ēśam techchi nā pilaganki This-to father his servants-to said, 'best dress having-brought my todagundi, ēlu-nona ungaram ēyindi, kāl-nona chyappulu ēyindi, tinipichidanki feet-in shoes finger-in ring put, put, to-feast put-on, śēpichchundi, māmu tini santōsam ātam. Em-ante. tavāra preparation cause-to-make, we having eaten merry let-us-become. What-if-you-say nā pilagadu tachchinde, tiragā jīva vachche; tappichakonande, chikkinadu.' he-was-lost, was-dead, again life came; is-found? this my Dīni andar-ki bāga āye. ini hearing all-to merriment became. This

vālāku vāni pedd pilagadu chyānlā unde. Vādu intli-pakka This his eldest field-in Hehouse-near time-to sonwas. tsākryōl-nona vachin-epdu vānki pāda-eddi chāli-batteddi ina-vachche. Vādu Hecome-when was-heard. servants-among him-to dancing singing nadachindi?' adige. Dānki pilchi, 'ēm antā vādu, 'nī ogani 'what has-happened?' saying asked. That-to calling, 'your tammadu vachinādu; vādu bāga vachchi patte kāraņam tandri he safely coming having-reached on-account-of your father Dīni ini vāni pedd pilagadu kopam-eyyi tinipichinādu,' antā cheppe. Thishearing his eldestfeast-has-made, saying told. son being-angry nonki paka-paye. Da-ninchi vana tandri belk vachchi nonki dā-antani vānk Therefore his father out coming in in-order-to-come him-to did-not-go. 'nā Dānki vādu tana tandrike ane, inn-oddal-dākā śana chepakoni. ʻΙ his father-to said, so-many-years-till your much entreated. That-to he mīra-lēdu. eppadū nī māta Eyinagani nā tsākrī éësi word have-not-transgressed. However service having-done ever your I genekāļn kūdapakoni tinipichidadanki nivvu nāku eppadū oga myāku sudā friends together-with feast-in-order-to-make you me-to ever goatīvak-pōtivi. Āte lanjelkāl sobatī kūdi jinjig-enta mingen-ant nī did-not-give. But harlots company joining your property-all having-devoured-such mantke nivvu vaninchi nī pilagadu intakū vachina tinipichināvu.' house-to having-come as-soon-as you him-for feast-have-made. this your Tandri pilaganki ane, 'nivvu pagal-ella na pakk untavu. Nāta undad-anta Father son-to said, ' you always my near are.My-near what-is-all nīdē. Tachchini nitammadu, maļļā jīvantadāye; tappichk-pōyinōdu, brother, again became-alive; yours-only. Dead your that-was-lost, antani māmu santōsam ēyaddi mañchidi undadi.' chikinadu, merry to-become proper is-found, regarding we

BERADÎ DIALECT.

The Bērads are an aboriginal tribe in Belgaum. They are found scattered all over the district. Pachhapur, about twenty miles north of Belgaum, is said to have been a capital of the Bērads, and they are the principal inhabitants of several villages in the neighbourhood. They are notorious thieves, but nevertheless honest guardians of public property, and are employed as village watchmen, husbandmen and labourers. Compare Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. xxi, Bombay, 1884, pp. 163 and ff.

Local estimates give 1,250 as the number of Bērads speaking a separate dialect. At the Census of 1891, Bēradī was classed as a dialect of Kanarese. A glance at the specimens shows, however, that it is in reality a form of Telugu. Kanarese forms are occasionally used. Thus we find pañchi-śide, he having divided gave; śikkag-alyā, he was not found, etc., in the first specimen. In most details, however, and in its general character the dialect is ordinary Telugu.

Short final vowels are commonly dropped; thus, ostān, Standard vastānu, I shall come; ottu, Standard vattunu, I may come; vaśūn, Standard vatstsunu, it may come.

The last mentioned form shows that an \acute{s} sometimes corresponds to Standard ch. In $k\bar{e}si$, having done, Standard $ch\bar{e}si$, ch is replaced by k.

With regard to the inflexion of nouns and pronouns we may note the accusative ending in t; thus, natt, me; nitt, thee; $v\bar{a}nt$, him; $d\bar{a}t$, it. 'I' is $n\bar{a}nu$ and 'we' $n\bar{a}mu$. Compare Kanarese $n\bar{a}nu$, Tamil $n\bar{a}n$, I; Kanarese $n\bar{a}vu$, Tamil $n\bar{a}m$, we.

Udaga, to be, corresponds to Standard unda. Its present tense is formed as follows:—

Sing. 1. uḍānu. 2. uḍāvu. 3. m. uḍā(da)		2.	Plur. udāmu. udāru.
3. m. uḍā(ḍu).	:	3.	uḍāru.

Other verbal forms will be easily recognized. Note the subjunctive ending in $t\bar{e}n$; thus, $p\bar{o}t\bar{e}n$, if we go, etc. Compare the Gondi of Seoni.

Two specimens have been received from Belgaum. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, the second a conversation between two hoys. Both are printed in Roman characters.

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

SPECIMEN I.

BERADI DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

Okanikokaniki girestanak udru pati bidl udri. Vardā-nān sann kodak gentleman-to two male children were. Of-them sonjindigi-nān aike ande, 'ayyā, nī nāki tan vasan pāl īvi,' property-in hisfather-to said, 'father, your me-to falling share give,' vardā-nān tan badak panchi-side. Sann kodak ant-ande. Ayyi so-said. Father them-among his property divided. Youngest son chikōni pāl dŭr rājanak pōyi bāļ nādl aggalyā. tan far country-to taking going days his share many was-not. dundukēśi Hant-nān vādu tan baduk-tel hāl-kēśadi. Vādu hill kēśadi Meanwhile with-luxury property-all waste-made. he his Hedidpaini pedd vanike badatan dēsa-nān bara padi vaśā. Vādu thatcountry-in bigfamine falling him-to poverty after came. Heballi chākri nichhdi. Ī dēsa-nān okan vānt girest ā one-of service stood. This country-of neargentleman him thatśēnak ampiside. pandal mēbasag tan And saraganuti kalavalasti field-to sent. There to-feed hiswith-hunger being-oppressed swine tāg-hantādi pott sudde tini oll nippikōtudate. Agiten vānike pandi that-could-eat huskeven eating belly was-filling. Buthim-to swine śikkagalya. Hill kont yalema povi tan enak ēmī anybody-from anything was-not-found. So some time going his behind what-happened nenapagi vādu tan manasa-nān ande, 'māy-ayyī balli hentō chākaravarke mind-in said, remembering he his'my-father near many servants-to sālaganant annam śikkdāyi. Agiten ind nānatū nippi oll Butso-as-to-exceed foodis-found. here as-for-myself bellylēśi sastān. Nānu balli "avvā, saragi $m\bar{a}$ ayya pōyi, I-die. Igetting-up of-father near "father, I mygoing, being-hungry ayyan pāpam kattikodan. Nānu kodak dēvaradu pāpam sinfather-of have-tied-to-myself. 1 your God-of chalū balli pettiko." lēdu. Natt ok āl-kodak tale nianibisikōga Me keep."; worthy one servant of-you near to-be-called is-not. vasināvad, anduti lēśi tan аууа balli ayya vānt Antu father when-coming, father himthence getting-up hisnear Saying muddi-śidi. sūdi piriti-vasi pāri-pōyi patikoni Avad dūr-nuti love-coming embracing Then. distance-from seeing running-going kiss-gave. 4 H 2

'ayyā, nānu dēvar balli balli tapp-kēśudate. kodak ayyak ande, nī God-of near of-you near fault-have-made. father-to said,father, I Natt kodak antaodar-odd.' Dinike ayyi tan chākarike ande, Medo-not-call. To-this father his servant-to said, your sonsaying chalu chalu teśi kodakk botta-nān ungaram pōśāk $n\bar{a}$ pedas, yayyi, good dress bringing son-to put-on, finger-in ring put, my tayāram kēbs. Nāmu tagi kālān śeppal pedas, ūtam santos-agadam. dinnerreadinessmake. We eating merry-let-become. feet-in shoes put, nan kodak saśudde, markali jīm-agadād; Yāl-antēn ī tepisikodādu, Why-if-said thismyson was-dead, again alive-has-become; he-had-been-lost, Dīta ālisi śikkidi.' ellāru santōsam agiri. Thisallis-found.' hearing merry became.

yāļēma van pedd kodak śēnān uddi. Vādu gudas balli vasināvad This timehis eldest sonin-field was. Hehouse near when-came vāniki pātlā kunsandā ini-vasyā. Vādu ā chākari-nān okant odari. him-to dancing hearing-came. song Hethat servants-among one calling, 'id-ēm aggadāyi?' dāt adigiti. Dānike vādu ande, 'nī tammad this-what became?' that asked. Thereto he said, ' your brother osdād. $V\bar{a}d\bar{a}$ chalū-nān muttindi kēbasdād, kāranamā miy-ayyi ūtam is-come. Hesafely having-reached on-account-of your-father feast has-made,' antśeppidi. Dit pedd adigi ā kodak śitt-kēśi nonikepōk-ayidi. told. This hearing thateldest80% being-angry indid-not-go. Dan-nuti vār-ayyi eliki vaśi, 'nonike dā, ' ant vānike bālam Therefore his-father out coming, 'in come,' 80 him-to muchseppikodi. Dānike vādā tan aike 'nā ande, inni varasal tankā entreated. That-to hehisfather-to said, 'I so-many years tillchākari kēśi nī yandū nī matmīrk-agati. Intū nānu your service having-made any-time your worddid-not-disobey. However Ι genēlu kūdikoni ūtam kēbasag nivvu eņdū nāke okk mak sudde friends joining feast to-make my you ever me-to one goateven isak-agati kādu. Agiten süligar sõbati patti \mathbf{n} i baduk tella did-not-give is-it-not. Butharlots company joining your property allnunginantā ī nī kodak gudask vaśin bārak nivvu vān that-has-devoured thisyour son house-to having-come as-soon-as you hiskadisind ūţam kēbasd.' kodak ' nivvu Ayyi ande, pogal-ellā feast caused-to-be-made.' for Father son-to said, 'you always himmāl udatāvu. $n\bar{a}$ $N\bar{a}$ balli unnid-ellä nī-dē. Sasinvād ηī tammad, my company are. Of-me near being-all yours. Dead-man your brother, jīm-agadād; tirigi tepisikoni ponivad, śikkdād, nāmu ant santōs is-alive; **a**gain having been-missed goer, is-found, 80 we merru agiteme pādu udāvi.' became proper is.

[No. 84.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

BĒRAŅĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

SPECIMEN II.

A PLAY AT BAT AND BALL.

${ m CHANDU} \qquad { m KOLAT}. \ { m \it BALL} \qquad { m \it BAT-PLAY}.$

hudigēd Gövindanak sepatād, Gövindā, āvakke rēvu Rang-ant Govind, riverbeyond tells,Govind-to Rang-called boy Nānū ā kadege pōtānu. ādag bāļam hudigēl podār. bail-nān chandu kölāt I that side-to ball bat-play to-play many boys have-gone. kād?' Nivvu vastāvu

You come is-it-not?'

lyāk Gövind,—'Hond, agitēn māy-avvā guḍasān lēdu. apani Dān Her permission not-being but my-mother at-home is-not. Govind,- 'Yes, balak nānu adigi ostān. vaśin Adi gudasak ottu? hell asking come. Mama house-to having-come after how shall-come? She nāke apaņi kēsadāyi.' pō-vadd''-aṇṭ elike ponāvad, "gudas tidisi ekkadū out while-going, "house leaving elsewhere do-not-go"-saying to-me order has-made."

yāvad ostāyi ēmō; hint poddak and 'Miy-avv Rang,- 'Your-mother when comes what; so-much time-to there play good nāmu lagu pōtēn chaludu; nānu avad vaśun; bārak soon if-go good-is; I then-only going-was; height-to may-have-come; we seppindadisind nitt agitēn, "pōnāvad natt odar"-aṇṭu nivvu $monn\bar{a}$ you day-before-yesterday since-had-told call"-so "while-going me manasā lyākudtēn nā nanantak pōtānu.' osand osti; to-call I-came; to-you coming-of mind if-is-not I for-myself will-go.

māy-avva nichh, kēsand chaluva? jarā nivvu hill Govind,—'Rangā, my-mother stop, a-bitproper? doing you Govind,- ' Rang, osan.' ivud now will-come.

Rang,— 'Mīy-avv end pōḍāyi?' Rang,— 'Your-mother where has-gone?'

Govind,—'Mā sinavv meyanān chalū lēdu; dāt mātlādas pōdāyi. kūtra Govind,-- 'My aunt's daughter body-in good is-not; her to-inquire is-gone.' Rang, - 'Hallagiten andu nāl $\bar{a}d-\bar{e}m$ lagg ostāyi? galagalā kusarbadi, Rang,-'Thus-being-if she-what soon comes? there four ghațikās dan-paini vasan: dan-nuți nivvu kusarbadu, nānu pōtānu. Ī podd that-on may-come; therefore you sit. Ι Thisof-time āţ oļe chamat agatāyi.' play very interesting

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A boy named Rang says to Govind,—'Govind, many boys have gone to play at bat and ball on the sandy plain on the yonder bank of the river. I too am going thither. You also do the same. Do you?'

Govind,—'Yes, but my mother is not at home. How shall I come without her leave? On her returning home, I shall ask her permission and go. While going out my mother has warned me not to leave home and go out elsewhere.'

Rang,—'Who knows when your mother returns? By that time, the play may be at its height. The sooner we go, the better. I was to go long ago, but as you asked me the other day to call upon you while going, I am here to take you with me. If you have no wish for it, I will go by myself.'

Govind,—'Rang, is it proper on your part to do so? Wait a bit; my mother will come presently.'

Rang,—'Where is your mother gone?'

Govind,—' My aunt's daughter is ill; so she is gone to inquire after her health.'

Rang,—'Well then, she is not likely to return soon. She will sit there for four ghatikās and then return. Therefore, you sit and I leave. To-day's play is very interesting.'

VADARĪ.

Vadari is the dialect of a wandering tribe of quarry men in the Bombay Presidency, the Berars and other districts. The number of speakers has been estimated as follows for the purposes of this survey:—

Thana											700		
Ahmedna	gar										100		
Poona!								•	•	•	450		
Sholapur						·		•	·	•	4,500		
Satara							Ţ.	i	•	•	1,200		
State Aun	dh						•	·	•	•	260		
Belgaum	7.000	5		•	•	•	•	•	•	•			
	•	•	•	•	•	•	. •	•	•	•	6,100		
Kolhapur	•	. •		•	•	•	•	•			350		
Southern 1	Marāţ	hā Jag	hirs					•			1,000		
Bijapur		•		•							11,000		
		- 15											
							Total	и Во	MBAY	PRES	SIDENCY	•	25,660
Amraoti										_	600		
Akola									•		289		
Buldana						1.5	- 5	- 5			550		
i diddini			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	550		
									7	COTAI	BERAR	•	1,439
									GKAI	נ עוו	TOTAL	•	27,099

At the last Census of 1901 no speakers were returned from Berar. The figures from other districts were as follows:—

nbay Presidency			•										2,786
Thana .										36			_,
Ahmednagar													
Khandesh										30			
Nasik .			٠.				. •			63			
Poons .										774			
Satara .										468			
Sholapur .				,									
Belgaum .													
Dharwar										42			
Kanara .													
Kolaba .													
Akalkot .													
Bhor .													
Satara Agency				•						_			
derabad .										٠.	1		940
									•	i	•		134
,	•	8	15	- 51	50	•		•	•	•	•	_	104
									To	OTA F.		_	3,860
									_		•	_	-,500
	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor	Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad	Thana Ahmednagar Khandesh Nasik Poona Satara Sholapur Belgaum Bijapur Dharwar Kanara Kolaba Akalkot Bhor Satara Agency derabad wancore	Thana 36 Ahmednagar 698 Khandesh 30 Nasik 63 Poona 774 Satara 468 Sholapur 260 Belgaum 207 Bijapur 62 Dharwar 42 Kanara 42 Kolaba 13 Akalkot 17 Bhor 6 Satara Agency 68 derabad	Thana 36 Ahmednagar 698 Khandesh 30 Nasik 63 Poona 774 Satara 468 Sholapur 260 Belgaum 207 Bijapur 62 Dharwar 42 Kanara 42 Kolaba 13 Akalkot 17 Bhor 6 Satara Agency 68 derabad *** vancore ***	Thana 36 Ahmednagar 698 Khandesh 30 Nasik 63 Poona 774 Satara 468 Sholapur 260 Belgaum 207 Bijapur 62 Dharwar 42 Kanara 42 Kolaba 13 Akalkot 17 Bhor 6 Satara Agency 68 derabad *** vancore ***

The greatest numbers of speakers have been reported from Bijapur, Belgaum and Sholapur. The specimens received from those districts represent a form of speech which is essentially the same everywhere and only differs in unimportant details. The materials printed below will show that the dialect is simply vulgar Telugu, and it will be sufficient to draw attention to some details.

An \bar{a} is often substituted for \bar{o} in postpositions such as $l\bar{a}$ or $l\bar{o}$, in; $t\bar{a}$, with. Instead of $l\bar{a}$ we also find $ly\bar{a}$, and \bar{a} and $y\bar{a}$ are also often interchangeable. Thus, $und\bar{a}nu$ and $undy\bar{a}nu$, I am.

 \bar{E} usually becomes \bar{i} in $n\bar{i}nu$, I; $m\bar{i}mu$, we.

K and g are often interchanged after vowels and nasal sounds. Thus, oka and oga, one; $ink\bar{a}$ and $ing\bar{a}$, and.

Ch is usually pronounced as \$\delta\$; thus, \$\delta\delta\delta\int\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delta\delt

The inflexion of nouns and pronouns is regular. The dative is, however, sometimes used instead of the accusative. Note also the common ablative suffix inda. Compare Kanarese. Forms such as $n\bar{\imath}nu$, I; $m\bar{\imath}mu$, we; $n\bar{\imath}vu$ and $n\bar{\imath}u$, thou, have already been mentioned.

The various tenses of verbs are formed as in ordinary Telugu. The personal suffixes are, as is also the case in other connected forms of the language, usually omitted in the first and third persons singular. Thus, unti, I was; chēse, Standard chēsenu, he, she, it, did. The final e of the latter form is usually replaced by ya or $y\bar{a}$, and forms such as cheppya, he said; undyā, he was, are the regular representatives of the third person singular of the past tense. In Sholapur, however, the regular form ending in e is more frequently used.

In the pluperfect we find forms such mattunti and mattinti, i.e., matti-unti, I had struck.

The negative verb is regular. Note, however, forms such as $p\bar{o}$ -valladu, he did not go; iyya-vallaru, they did not give. Compare the Standard auxiliary valayuta, to be wanted, to be necessary.

Other details will be ascertained from the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son from Bijapur. The second is the beginning of another version received from Belgaum, and the third is a popular tale from Sholapur.

[No. 85.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

SPECIMEN I.

VADART DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BIJAPUR.)

Oka manasi-ki iddaru kodakalu unnāru. Inkā chinna koduku vāri-lö sons were. And smallOne man-to son them-in ayyā-ku pāla-ku vachchina anyā, 'ayyā, $n\bar{a}$ samsāra tana 'father, my share-to having-come property me-to-give.' father-to said, hissamsāra pańch-ichcha. Inkā tana shanā dinālu Ińkā vādu dividing-gave. he his property And many daysAnd chinnavādu kudyas-kinya inkā ayi-nda-ledu dūra dēsāniki pōyā, having-become-were-not the-small-one collectedandfar country-to `badaku durgunam sarpu-kinya. Inkā inkā āda tana vādu antā there hisproperty in-evil-ways spent. Andand he allkharchis-kinya, ā rājama-nā pedda karu padya, inkā ādi-ki kadamu thatcountry-in bigfamine distressspent, fell, and him-to vādu pōyi dēsā-nā Inkā ā okka manisi daggara padya. nilsva. And having-gone thatcountry-in fell. one mannear stayed. pandulu mēpasyānki śena-ku Ińkā vādu tana ansya. Inkā, 'pandulu And he his swine to-feed field-to sent. And, 'swine tindadi, nāku śikkitē, pottu-tōti khushilē kadupu nindat-undyā.' $n\bar{a}$ filling-was.' are-eating, me-to if-were-got, husk-with mygladlybelly vāni-ki Ińkā yichchara-ku Inkā yevaru ivva-lēdu. vān painā And bodysense-to And him-to anybody gave-not. hisvādu anyā, 'mā abban daggara yento-mandi kulivāndlu vachchin-anakā said, 'our father having-come-after henear how-many-persons servants kadupu niñchi-kōni rotya nilist-undi, nēnu ākali-goni sastānu. inkā belly having-filled breadspared, andΙ hunger-with their Nēnu lēchi nā yabbana daggara pōtānu, inkā vāniki cheputānu, him-to will-say, I having-arisen father's near will-go, andmyNi kodaku nī-mundara Dēvara mundara nēnu pāpam chēśiņţi. "O-father, thee-before Godbefore I. sinhave-done. nī-mundalā nā yōgyam lēdu. Okka kulivavāņi samānam nannu anavāniki to-call-myself thy-presence-in my fitness is not. One servant-of likeayyā-daggiri vachcha. Ayitē vādu ingā dūram petta-kō."' Inkā vādu lēśi And he having-arisen father-near stillcame. Buthe far 4 11

unda-gane van-ayya vaniki suśinadu, inka kalakala vachchi ingā pāryā, ingā being-when his-father him-to saw, and pity having-come still meda-ku padya, ingā muddu pettya. Vāni kodaku vāni seppya, 'ayyā, pōyi having-gone neck-to fell, and kissput. him said, 'father, Hissonnī-mundara Dēvara-mundara nēnu pāpam chēśinti. Nī koduku anavāniki of-thee-before God-of-before \boldsymbol{I} have-done. sinThyto-call-myself son nī-mundalā nā yōgyam lēdu.' Ayitē ayyā tana manasala-ku seppyā, 'mañchidi thy-presence-in my fitness is-not.' But the-father his men-to yat-koni dandi ingā vāni-minda yiyandi. Vāni chēyi-nā ungaram yiyandi, cloth having-taken come and him-on give. Hishand-on ingā vāni kāl-lā cheppulu yiyaņdi. Ingā manamu andaru tini ānandamand his foot-on shoes give. And we allhaving-eaten audāmu. Antē nā kodaku sachchinde, tiragi ippadu badaki vachcha; vādu shall-become. Because my sonhad-died, andnow alivechikke.' poyinavadu, Ingā vāriki andariki sukham anubhavińchidaniki who-had-gone, was-found.' And them-to all-to happiness to-enjoy sūrū chēsiri. beginning they-made.

Ippadu vāni pedda koduku sēna-lō uņde. Ingā vādu illu-saniyam vachchi bigsonfield-in was. Andhe house-near having-come udēdi inya. Ingā vādu tana aļū-manushyanna pilisya ingā, 'īdā yēmu adēdi dancing music heard. And he hisservant called and, 'here what nadisinādi?' adigya. Ingā vādu vānik-anya, 'nī tammudu vachchinādu. Inkā is-going-on?' asked. And he him-to-said, 'thy younger-brother has-come. And ayyā kudupu yesinādu, yenduk-aņtē, vādu sukham-nā illu-ku vachcha. your father feast has-served, why-if-said, he happily house-to Inkā vādu kopaniki vachcha inkā vādu inn-lo po-valladu. Anduku vāri-bbadu anger-to came and hehouse-in went-not. Therefore their-father yela-patiki vachcha, inkā vāniki chētulu jodisya. ill-idisi Inkā vādu tirigi house-leaving outside-to came, and him-to hands folded. And he again mātl-ādisya tana ayyāku seppe, 'sudu, inn-endlu nī-vadda dudastānu; nēnu his father-to said, · lo. so-many-years thee-with I-served: yannadu nī māt mīra-lēdu. Yeṭṭi nā genelku sukham padadaniki vakkati thy command broke-not. Still my friends-with merry to-become göre-pilla suddham iyya-lēdu. Ayitē nī koduku raṇḍala guḍā antā pāda-chēsi kidgavest-not. But thy son harlots with all waste-having-made kudu istivi.' Inkā vādu vāniki cheppe, 'nī yappadiki nā-vattā undāvu, coming-on feast gavest.' And he him-to said, thou always me-with inkā nā-vattā antā uṇḍid-antā nīdi. Nī tammudu sachchinavādu, tirigi badaki and me-with all being-all thine. Thybrother who-had-died, again alive vachche: pōyinādu, tirigi šikke: dāni kōsāniki sukham came; he-who-was-dead, again was-found; that-of reason-for happiness to-become ānandam padajedi yōgyam. joy to-become proper.'

[No. 86.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

SPECIMEN II.

VADARĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BELGAUM.)

Ogānigogād maniśigi iddar moga-biļļu uņdri. Vāridāntlene śinnā kodaku Them-among youngest were. twosons A-certain man-to son nāk vachchyā pālu nāk abbaniki anyā, 'abbā, nī jingandi īvi.' Abbād father-to said, 'father, your property-of me-to coming share me-to give.' Father Sinnā kodaku tan pańchichya. vāridāntlene tan jingi pāl tis-köni them-among his property having-divided-gave. Youngest sonhisshare taking śannāl kāle; poyyi antațlune vadu dund-ayyi dūrāma dēsamk country-to having-gone many-days had-not-been; meantime he luxury-becoming Vādu hill sēśina āstā pādalēpyā. mēdā ā bhūmi-nonā tan Hehaving-made estatewasted. after that his land-in mighty vānki badatān vachyā. Vādu $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ bhūmi-lyā oga maniśī deggārā karav padi famine falling him-to poverty came. Hethatland-in one man-of maniśi vāni pandal mēpēdanki tan śēnakk amaśyā. tsākarī nilasyā. Ι Anda stood. This manhimswineto-feed his field-to There ākal-göni bhaulki-vachchi pandi tinē pottu suddā tini kadapõ pangs-coming swineeating husk being-hungry even having-eaten stomachnińchikant-undya. Ate avanki yavvan-nunti ēmī śikt-undlē. Hillā konnāl But him-to anyone-by anything was-not-found. So a-few-days was-filling. nipp-ayyi vādu tan mansa-lā anyā, enkāti mātādi 'mabbāni pō, passed, former state memory-becoming he hismind-in said, ' my-father-of tsākrī-mandki kadap-niņdi sāl-ayyindākā kŭd śikktadi. Āte entā servants-to stomach-filling so-as-to-be-enough food is-found. But near so-many sachchyānu. Nīnu lēsi ākal-göni mabbantika ninantka poyyi anti. here (I) for-myself being-hungry rising my-father-near going said, die. I "abbā, nīnu dyāvārā pāpāmu abbāni pāpāmu kātikuņti. Ninu ni sin got-tied-to-myself. "father, God-of sinfather-of I your Nana oga tsākrī-maniśi lyāk nī-yattā petti-kō.", an-kōni aniskēne talallē. calling-myself to-be-called am-not-fit. Me one servantlike of-you-near keep."' Vādu andanuņti lēsi tan abbāntīka poyatappad, abbād dūrām-nuņti vāni rising his father-near while-going, father distance-from him seeing kalakalā-ayyi pāri-poyyi tekkyāsi mudd ichyā. Amīdā kodak abbanigi anyā, pity-becoming running-going embracing kiss gave. Thenson father-to said,

all

glad-became.

'abbā, nīnu dyāvārā mundārā nī mundārā tapp śēśaņān. Nan nī before your before fault have-committed. Me your God-of kodak an-koni pila-vadd. Dinki abbād tan tsākrī-mand-ki anyā, 'manchī baṭṭālu ' best calling don't-call. To-it father his servants-tosaid, nā kodk-k kappu; botta-lā ungarā eyyi; kāl-lā pāpāsl eyyi; having-brought my son-to put-on; finger-in ring put; feet-in shoes put; ātāmu. Yāl-anți ī tayār śaiyyi; mīmu tini santōs merry shall-become. Because this dinner preparation make; having-eaten weDīni inī nā kodaku sachchinde, tirigi jivam vachchyā; tabs-kondyā, śikkyā. was-dead, again live came; was-lost, is-found.' This hearing andāru santōs-airi.

[No. 87.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

SPECIMEN III.

VADARĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT SHOLAPUR.)

banda-kōradu unde. unde. Andu vagadu anka oka ūru Palasagāv bandy-carrier was. There one village was. calledingogani pēru Yeśa-Khanderao Vāniki iddaru kodukulu undri. Vagani pēru Yaśother-of name were. One-of name Khanderao Him-to rendu mańchi unde. Oga gurram gurrālu vanta-rāo. Vāni-daggyarā atalanē were. horse-of horses also two goodHim-near vantrão. banda-koradu Ā Yeśavantarao. gurram pēru Khanderão, ingoga pēru That bandy-carrier Yaśvantrāo. otherhorse-of name Khanderão, namegurrâlu ī talagar-lā dāchi pette, ālu gurrālu põin-ankā vāni kept, these hidinghaving-died gone-after his horses cellar-in wife ain-akkā amma-ka yarkā Billu peddavār vāri nadarī-ka padaniyye-lēdu. sight-to to-come-allowed-not. Boys grown-up becoming-when mother-to known vāru talagara tērasiri. Appudu ā gurrālu vāru sūsiri. Vāru āniri, mēmu Then those horses they saw. They said, opened. not-being they cellar vadd-ane, yenduk-anțē, mandi sūsiranțē mimmu- \mathbf{Amma} gurra-mīda kusuntām. The-mother objected, why?-saying, 'men see-if will-sit. Vāru pōyiri. inaka Bill-ēmi pōyaru.' gurrāla yetakā lā motti Boys-anything not-hearing went. They to killing horses taking will-go.' mańchi gurralu Ī ūri-ki pōyiri. chellelu dāni-minda kusindri. Vāru These good horses went. Theysister-of village-to sat. them-on kadupu-lā kalpana vachche. Vānivāni vāri bāmardi sūse, appudu Himcame. thoughtbelly-in brother-in-law saw, then his their ī Ankā vādu antanīya-rādu.' 'vāri-ki gurrālu dose. ki these Then touch-to-let-is-not-proper.' it-appeared, 'them-to horses chēse. Antē vādu rāju-tātā pōye dhundu tāpi he king-near went So liquor having-caused-to-drink intoxicated made. gurrālu yetakā pō.' Vāri chellelaane, 'vārini mottēsi ingā taking go.' Their sistersaid, them having-caused-to-be-killed horses and kusana-pette. gurram-mida billani idi telse. Ankā chellelu $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ ku riding-put. horse-on was-known. And the-sister thoseboys to

Pader-anga dārama-tā gachchi katte. Ā gurrālani idichi-pettiri. Apata-Might-fall-so rope-with tighttied. Thosehorses let-loose. Runningāpata Ā vāru ūri-ki poyiri. gurrālu ā billani batakapise. running they village-to went. Those horses those boys saved.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In the village Palasagāv there was a bandy-carrier who had two sons, called Khanderāo and Yaśvantrāo. He also had two horses. Their names were likewise Khanderāo and Yaśvantrāo. When the carrier died his wife kept the horses hidden in the cellar and did not allow the boys to see them. When the boys had grown up they once opened the cellar without letting their mother know it, and saw the horses. They wished to ride on them, but the mother objected, because the people who might see them would kill them and take the horses. The boys did not listen to that, but took the horses and rode off to their sister's village. On seeing those good horses evil thoughts entered their brother-in-law's heart. He thought, 'it is not meet to let them keep those horses.' So he gave them to drink and made them drunk, and then he went to the King and said, 'let them be killed and take the horses away. This design became known to the sister. She put the boys on horseback, and tied them on well with ropes in order that they should not tumble off. So they let the horses loose and they gallopped home. The horses thus saved the boys.

One thousand speakers of Vadarī have also been reported from the Southern Marāṭhā Jaghirs. Specimens have been received from the Jamkhandi State and from Ramdrug.

The Vadari of the Jamkhandi State is identical with the dialect spoken in Bijapur, Belgaum, and Sholapur, as will be seen from the short specimen which follows.

[No. 88.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

VADARĪ DIALECT.

(JAMKHANDI STATE.)

Illanē oga dorā undyā. Vāniki aida-mandi āṇdl-uṇḍri. Vāni-ki musilēdu kingwas. Him-to five-persons wives-were. Him-to old-man So dinamu vādu tanā maga-billu ēmi lēk-undyā. Oga āla-nō-nididi āyitē-suddā not-was. One dayhe hiswives-in-from being-even son-child anyoga-ogatini phalisi-kinya, vāri-ki mātlu ādya, 'nū nā dayadinda ī sukumu them-to words said, 'thou my mercy-from this happiness one-one called, kudiśyāva ēme Dyāvāra dayadinda kudiśyāva?' Dāni-ki nalugu-mandi āndlu enjoyest?' That-to four-persons wives God's mercy-from enjoyest kudiśāmu.' Appudu vāni-ki santōsh-āyi ʻnī dayadinda anniri, Then satisfaction-having-come thy mercy-from enjoy.' him-to said. aidnē āl-ni phalisi-kinyā, dāni-ki bālāmu vastāmu ichchyā. Enakasari Afterwards fifth-also wife having-called, her-to many ornaments gave. Adi 'Dyāvāru ichchināya-akhanī ī sukumu adigyā. anyā, idē ' God given-because luck She said. this this-even asked. Dyāyāra vachanāyi, $ar{\mathbf{a}}$ kāranāma-ninti nī dayadinda kadā nī-ku God's mercy-from and reason-for thy thee-to has-come, Ī māta īni dorã śittu-āyā, dāni maikudisyānu.' dayadinda This word having-heard king angry-got, her body-I-enjoy. mercy-from vastāmu sīrāmu kubasāmu nābisi-kinya, dāni-ki padikyā kadisyā. mīdiţidi having-taken-off, her-to short-cloth what-was-on ornaments sārī chōlī Apdu ādi airānaku aniśya. Andu og-gudasā katti pettya. peddā Then she forest-to having-built put. There one-cottage bigsent. Ī suddi $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{d}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ maga-bidāni khanyā. mūnellu dimmāsi undyā. ādi This news was. There sheson-child got. three-months pregnant Dāni tirigi arailla-ku sechchibiśya. dorā santōshamu āyā. īni Herback palace-to brought. having-heard the-king became. happy Vāni kharēmu. Dyāvāra dayadinda ī sukumu Īdi mundarā annellā Hissaid-as God's mercy-from this happiness indeed. · This formerly Tanā jīmāma-ku halālyā. pad-emu. Illā anya mukkātā mādi was-touched. Hisworth-what. So said the-heart-to ours face-in Dyāvāra peddastanamu anyadaniki antyā. peddastanamu sokku udiśā kadā to-praise began. pridegave-up and God's greatnessareatness-of

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there was a king who had five wives. Though he was already an old man he had no male issue. One day he called his wives and asked them separately through whose mercy they enjoyed happiness. The four oldest ones said, 'through your mercy.' He was pleased and gave them many trinkets. Then he also called his youngest wife and put the same question to her. She said, 'God has given this happiness to you, and therefore I can thank God and you for it.' On hearing this the king got angry and took her ornaments, her sārī and her chōlī from her, gave her one small cloth and sent her into a big forest. There he built a cottage and put her therein. Then she was pregnant for three months, and gave birth to a son. When the king heard the news he became happy and fetched her back to his palace. Said he, 'what she formerly told me, that I owe my happiness to God, is true. What is the worth of our things before Him?' So he left off the pridein his own greatness and began to praise God's greatness.

The specimens received from the Ramdrug State are very corrupt. The beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows will, however, be sufficient to show that the dialect is in reality identical with that illustrated in the preceding pages.

[No. 89.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

VADARI DIALECT.

(RAMDRUG STATE.)

Vag-ayā-ku idar pillāru undari. Vāni-tā chinna pillā ayā-ku One-father-to twosons were. Them-in the-younger father-to cheppindi, ٠ī jindagāni-lē pāl nā-ku iyālu.' Illā anyanakā pāl yēsi give.' property-in shareme-to So saying-after share making saidchinna pillā Yannāļ-mundarā antārē tis-kēnī dūram dēsam-ko ichyā. taking Some-days-after the-small allfar country-to starting gave. Ā dud-antā manasa-kochīlā antá pāda-śēśā. рō, and pōi-kyāśī Thatthere having-gone money-all riotously allsquandered. went, vādu kharchi-ge lēk-undyā, dēśam-ko karaü padyā, akanne nirachyā. famine fell. country-to fell, spending-for wanting-was, in-want pettikundu Ā dēśam-madilyā kuda-kēni grihasthadu tanna śēna-ku country-inhabitant joining householder thatemployed his field-to pandala kāśadāna-ke pettidādu. feeding-for employed. swine

As will be seen from the table on p. 607, Vadarī is also to some extent spoken in other districts in the Bombay Presidency. No specimens have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. There is, however, no reason for supposing that the dialect is different from that illustrated in the preceding pages. A similar remark holds good with regard to the speakers of Vadarī returned from Hyderabad and Travancore at the last Census.

Vadarī is also found in Berar, but the number of speakers is everywhere small and no separate figures were returned in the last Census of 1901. There are, of course, local variations in the dialect. They are, however, of small importance, and it will be sufficient to give the beginning of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Vadarī of Akola in order to show that the Vadarī of Berar is of the same kind as the Vadarī of the Bombay Presidency. The pronoun 'I' is nēnu, and forms such as chēsinānu, I did; pōindu, he went, are quite common. Note also mana for Standard tana, own, his; iyāva, give.

[No. 90.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

TELUGU.

VADARĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT AROLA.)

kodakulu undri. Vakkā mansi-ki iddar Yē-mē śinā kodaku One man-to two boys were. Them-in the-youngest boy ʻabbā, abbāni anyā, ēdannā tolīdamadīdi pālu nāku vachchēdi adi ivāva. father-to said, 'father, whatever property-of share me-to coming that give.' Maralā ādu vāni-ki paisā pañchi ichindu. Marala tödyam dināla-kindā And he money dividing him-to gave. And few days-after chinnā kodaku antā dūram jamā-jēs-koni dēśam pōindu. Ińkā allthe-younger son together-having-made far country went. And akkadā paisā yegar-kotti-koni nadas-kōni manadi paisā yēgar-kottindu. money spent-having-made having-behaved his-own money spent-made. Maralā ādu $ant\bar{a}$ yēgar-kottin-ankā ā dēśam-lā peddā karū padenu. And he allsquandering-after thatcountry-in big famine fell. .Andu-kōrānke āniki chintā padinadi. Maralā vādu ā dēśam-lā vakkā. Therefore him-to anxiety fell. Then hethatcountry-in komatodu deggarā pōi unnādu. Vādu maralā vāniki pandulu mēpedanki inhabitant nearhaving-gone was. Hethen himswine feeding-for mana śēna-lā pampiñchindu. Maralā pandulu ēdannā țintă unt-undri dănifield-in sent. Then his swine whatever eating thatmīda vādu mana pottā nimpālē ittā vaniki anpiñchiadi. Ińkā yēvara-nnā his belly to-fill him-to appeared. And anybody vāniki yēma-nnā iya-lēdu. Maralā vādu śudi-mīdā vachchi cheppindu, 'nā him-to anything gave-not. Thenhesense-on having-come said, 'my abba-tā ventā kulyönki kadapu-niņda rotyā unnadi, maralā nēnu father-with how-many servants-to belly-from breadis, I ākalu-gōni sastānu. Nēnu nā abbā-dikku lēsi pōyēnu inkā āni-ki hungering die. I having-arisen my father-near may-go and him-to "yē abbā, nēnu Īśvaruni cheppěnu, viruddha inkā nī mungață pāpam may-say, "O father, I God-of against andthee*before* sinjēsinānu. Ippada-sandi nī kodaku anadanki nēnu sādāyadu lēnu. Mana vakkā did. Now-from thy son to-say \boldsymbol{I} fitam-not. Your own one kulyōna-lekkā nāku unachu." servant-like me keep."

BRĀHŪĪ.

The bulk of the speakers of Brāhūī are found in the Sarawan and Jhalawan Provinces of Baluchistan. Some 40,000 speakers have also been returned from Sind in the Bombay Presidency, and a short account of the language will be given in the ensuing pages.

According to Dr. Trumpp, Brāhūī or Birāhūī is the correct form of the name which the people use to denote themselves. In Sind we find Birūhī or Birōhī, or, with the addition of the common suffix $k\bar{\imath}$, Brōhkī. We do not know anything about the etymology or original meaning of the word Brāhūī. According to Mr. Masson, the language is also called Kūr Gāllī.

The home of the Brāhūis is the mountainous regions in Eastern Baluchistan and the neighbouring districts of Sind. They are much split up into small tribes, on account of the difficulty of access to their homes in the mountains. It is only in the provinces of Sarawan and Jhalawan and in the south-east, so far as Kuch in Makran, that we find them together in greater Tūmāns, i.e., tent-villages. They also apparently avoid the plains where the Balōchī reside.

The Brāhūīs maintain that they are the original inhabitants of Baluchistan. The Persians must, however, have invaded the country at a very early date. The cultivating class in the middle and westerly parts of the Khanat of Kalat are at the present day the Tājīks whose mother-tongue is Persian. The Jats have occupied the south-east of the Khanat, the province of Las with the plains extending towards the Indus, and almost the whole province of Kachh Gandava. The last settlers were the Balōchī who came from the south-west. They were not able to dislodge the Brāhūīs from the mountains, and they therefore took possession of the north-east and of the tract between Sind and Kachh Gandava. The Brāhūīs are, however, still considered as the dominant race.

We do not know anything about the existence of dialects in Brāhūī. Specimens have been received from Kalat and from the adjoining districts of Sind, and they all represent the same form of speech, with very slight differences in pronunciation.

No census has ever been taken of the whole of Baluchistan. I am, however, able, through the kindness of the Agent to the Governor General, to give the following estimates of the number of speakers of

Brāhūī in that area:-

Kalat, Sarawan (Country									25,000
" Jhalawan	Countr	у.								100,000
Southern Baluch	istan, L	as Bela	and L	evy tr	acts					2,500
,, ,,	B	is High	ness th	e Kha	n's la	nds	•			500
Chagai Agency				٠.						1,500
								Тота	L	129,500

The estimates given for the number of speakers of Brāhūī in the Bombay Presidency, which are based on the figures of the Census of 1891, are as follows:—

											-	
									TOTAL	ь		36,000
Upper Sind	Fro	ntier	•	•	•	• •	•	•	•	-	٠_	6,000
Shikarpur	•					•						20,000
Karachi												10,000

4 K 2

The total number of speakers of Brāhūī, as estimated for this Survey, is therefore as follows:—

											•	
Bombay Presidency	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	٠.	36,000
									TOTAL			165,500

If we compare these figures with those recorded for Brāhūī in the Census of 1901, we are met by the difficulty that no language census was then taken of the greater part of Baluchistan, and that hence only 645 speakers of the language are shown in the tables for that area. Excluding Bombay, 46 speakers were found in other parts of India, all of whom hailed from the North-West Frontier Province, except one who had journeyed for his country's good to the Andamans. The 1901 Bombay figures are as follows. They show a considerable increase over those given above:—

Karachi .					_								19,023
		-		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	10,020
Hyderabad (Si	nd)	•	•	•		•							1,498
Shikarpur .													15,197
Thar and Park													448
Upper Sind Fr	ontier												10,871
Khairpur .													861
										TOTAL	C .		47,898

The total figures for all India according to the Census of 1901 are therefore as follows:—

Elsewhere in India	•	٠	•		•	•	·	÷	645 46
					-		Тота	ь	48,589

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Brāhūī has no written literature, and no portion of the Bible seems to have been translated into it. Alla Bux¹ and Captain Nicolson made use of the Persian alphabet for Brāhūī. The system of noting the various sounds of the language introduced by them was afterwards slightly modified by Dr. Trumpp, and this improved system has been adopted in the ensuing pages.

The various letters are, in most cases, pronounced as in Hindostānī, and it will therefore be sufficient to make but few remarks on Brāhūī pronunciation.

The vowels e and o are both short and long, but it is not always possible from the sources available to distinguish between the two sounds. E is sometimes interchangeable with i, and o with u; thus, $\underline{khalateat}$ and $\underline{khalatiat}$, with stones; ut and ot, I am.

The diphthongs at and au are of frequent occurrence, mostly, however, in borrowed words.

Of other vowels Brāhūī possesses a, \bar{a} , i, \bar{i} , u, and \bar{u} .

A final consonant is often followed by a short vowel sound, as is also the case in other Dravidian languages. The short vowel is usually written e, but sometimes also u. Thus, nan and nane, we; num and numu, you. The use of the short vowel in such cases is especially common in the Upper Sind Frontier district.

Similarly we also find a short vowel, usually i or e, inserted between concurrent consonants. Thus, $\bar{o}fk$ and $\bar{o}fik$, they.

On the other hand, we sometimes find contracted forms, especially in Karachi. Thus, antak for antae-ki, because; hākimā for hākimāe, to the magistrate; gaṭrī-s, i.e., gaṭrī-as, a bundle.

The gutturals, palatals, cerebrals, and dentals are the same as in Hindōstānī. In this connexion we should note that Brāhūī makes an extensive use of aspirated letters, just as is the case in Kurukh. Aspirated letters are, however, also freely used in dialects of other Dravidian languages.

The cerebral d is interchangeable with r. In Karachi, however, no r seems to occur, the dental r being used instead. D and r also interchange with d in demonstrative pronouns. Thus, $\bar{o}de$, $\bar{o}de$, and $\bar{o}re$, him.

The dental n is also written before gutturals, palatals, and cerebrals. I have in the specimens followed Dr. Trumpp and transliterated n throughout. There can, however, be no doubt that n is, in such cases, written instead of the different class nasals, and I have transliterated accordingly in the list of words. An n is often added after final vowels in Karachi. Thus, $\bar{o}ftin$ and $\bar{o}fte$, to them; kin and $k\bar{e}$, for.

Of s-sounds Brāhūī possesses a hard dental s, a soft z, and a hard cerebral sh.

The semi-vowels y, r, l, and v are the same as in Hindostānī.

The h is very faintly sounded and often dropped. Thus, ant and hant, what? Brāhūī further possesses the sounds \underline{kh} , \underline{gh} , and f.

 \underline{Kh} also occurs in Kurukh. It seems to correspond to k in other Dravidian languages. Thus, $\underline{kh}an$, Tamil kan, eye; $\underline{kh}al$, Tamil kal, stone.

 \underline{Gh} is very common, both in borrowed and in indigenous words. Thus, $banda\underline{gh}$, a man; $ira\underline{gh}$, bread. Nouns ending in ah commonly change their final h to \underline{gh} before vocalic suffixes. Thus, lummah, mother; $lumma\underline{gh}e$, to the mother. The final h of such words is probably silent, and the \underline{gh} is therefore apparently used in order to avoid the hiatus. Similarly, we also find $ur\bar{a}\underline{gh}\bar{a}n$, from the house, from $ur\bar{a}$, house. It is, however, also possible that the termination \underline{gh} is borrowed from Balōchī, where it is very common.

F is often interchangeable with p. Thus, \underline{khan} , see; \underline{khan} -pa, don't see; bar, come; ba-fa, don't come. F does not occur in the principal Dravidian languages, and it is usually difficult to see which sound corresponds to a Brāhūī f in other connected forms of speech.

Other letters are only used in loan-words. They are \underline{s} , pronounced s; \underline{h} , pronounced h; \underline{z} pronounced z; zh; \underline{s} , pronounced s; \underline{z} , pronounced z; \underline{t} , pronounced t; \underline{z} , pronounced z; ', not pronounced; \underline{q} , pronounced \underline{k} .

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral $as\bar{\imath}$, one, is, however, often used as an indefinite article. An abbreviated form as is usually suffixed to the noun. Thus, $as\bar{\imath}\ banda\underline{gh}$ -as or simply $banda\underline{gh}$ -as, a man; $as\bar{\imath}\ darv\bar{\imath}sh$, a Darvish; $banda\underline{gh}as$ -e, to a man. The suffixed as is also used in forms such as $va\underline{kh}t$ -as ki, at the time when, when.

Nouns.—Nouns do not differ for gender. Brāhūī has, accordingly, given up the common Dravidian distinction between rational and irrational nouns. This state of affairs is certainly due to Eranian influence. There are, however, perhaps some traces of the neuter, *i.e.* the irrational, gender in the conjugation of verbs. See below. When it is necessary to distinguish the natural gender the Persian words nar, man, and mādah, mother, are prefixed.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is occasionally left unmarked. This is also the case in other Dravidian languages, and in Kurukh and Malto it is the rule with neuter nouns. The usual plural suffix is $\bar{a}k$, or, after long vowels, k; thus, \underline{khaf} - $\bar{a}k$, ears; $d\bar{u}$ -k, hands; $lumma\underline{ah}$ - $\bar{a}k$, mothers. K is also added to nouns ending in n, t, and r; an r which is preceded by a long vowel, or a t is dropped before this k. Thus, \underline{khan} -k, eyes; $m\bar{a}k$, sons $(m\bar{a}r, \text{son})$; nak, feet (nat, foot). The plural of masir, daughter, is masir- $\bar{a}k$ or masink.

The plural suffix in Brāhūi should be compared with Gōṇḍī k, hk; Kaikāḍī $g\bar{a}$, oblique gl; Tamil gal, and so forth.

The suffix k is changed to t, or, occasionally in Karachi, to kt, in the oblique cases. Thus, $\underline{khan-t-\bar{a}}$, of the eyes. The t is perhaps derived from kl; compare the plural suffix in Kaikādī, nominative $g\bar{a}$, oblique gl.

Case.—There is no separate oblique base in the singular. Brāhūī in this respect agrees with Kurukh and Malto. A similar state of affairs is also met with in some Tamil dialects such as Kaikāḍi and Burgaṇḍī.

The dative and the accusative have the same form, as is also the case in some dialects of Tamil such as Kaikāḍī and Burgaṇḍī, and in Gōṇḍī, Naikī, and Kōlāmī. The usual suffix is e, or, in Karachi, in; thus, lummah-e or lummagh-e, to the mother; ōft-e or ōft-in, to them. Compare Tamil ei; Gōṇḍī un; Kurukh n, in (accusative, but sometimes also used as a dative).

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The usual suffixes of the other cases are, instrumental at; ablative $\bar{a}n$; genitive $n\bar{a}$, plural \bar{a} ; locative $\bar{a}e$ and $t\bar{i}$. The suffixes of the instrumental, the ablative, and the locative, are usually preceded by an e or i in the plural and often also in the singular. Thus, \underline{khal} -at, with a stone; $\underline{khal\bar{a}t}$ - $\bar{a}n$, from stones; \underline{khal} - $t\bar{i}$, in a stone; $\underline{khal\bar{a}t}$ - \bar{a} , of the stones.

The two suffixes of the locative are distinguished in such a way that $t\bar{\imath}$ denotes only the simple locative, and $\bar{a}e$ also motion towards some place or person. Instead of $\bar{a}e$ we also find \bar{a} in Karachi.

The instrumental suffix at is perhaps connected with Tamil $i\underline{n}\underline{r}u$, Korava $i\underline{n}\underline{d}e$, $u\underline{n}\underline{d}$, Kui tai, Kurukh $t\overline{\imath}$, Kōi aggada, from. Compare Tamil $\overline{a}d$, Kui $od\overline{a}$, Gōndī $y\overline{e}t\overline{\imath}$, Brāhūī $h\overline{e}t$, a goat.

Dr. Trumpp compares the ablative suffix $\bar{a}n$ with Tamil in and Telugu na. In is, however, interchangeable with il, and the Telugu na is a locative suffix. It therefore seems more reasonable to compare the instrumental suffix $\bar{a}l$ (old $\bar{a}n$) in Tamil.

The genitive suffix $n\bar{a}$, \bar{a} , corresponds to Burgaṇḍī e, ne; Naikī and Kōlāmī $n\bar{e}$; Gōṇḍī \bar{a} ; Kui i, ni, etc.

Dr. Trumpp compares the locative suffix $t\bar{\imath}$ with Tamil idei, place; Kui has ta. The other suffix $\bar{a}e$ can perhaps be compared with ali, ulli, and similar forms in Tamil dialects, or else it is borrowed from Balōchī.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not change for gender, number or case. They precede the noun they qualify. They are often formed with the suffix $ang\bar{a}$ or $ag\underline{h}\bar{a}$; thus, $p\bar{\imath}rang\bar{a}$, old, from $p\bar{\imath}r$, an old man; $sharang\bar{a}$ and shar, good; $b\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}rag\underline{h}\bar{a}$, sick. Balōchī has an adjective suffix $ag\underline{h}$, which is perhaps identical.

Definiteness is expressed by adding \bar{a} , and indefiniteness by adding \bar{o} . Thus, $kab\bar{e}n-\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}r\bar{e}m$, the hard business; $as\bar{\imath}\ k\bar{o}r-\bar{o}\ banda\ \underline{gh}as$, a blind man.

Comparison is effected in the usual way by putting the noun with which comparison is made in the ablative.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that the first three numerals are distinctly Dravidian, and that the higher ones are Aryan loanwords. *Musit*, three, can be compared with Tulu *mūji*, etc.

The ordinals are formed by adding $m\bar{\imath}k\bar{o}$ or $v\bar{\imath}k\bar{o}$. Thus, irat- $m\bar{\imath}k\bar{o}$, second; musit- $m\bar{\imath}k\bar{o}$, mus- $v\bar{\imath}k\bar{o}$, third; $ch\bar{a}r$ - $v\bar{\imath}k\bar{o}$, fourth, etc. 'First' is $muh\bar{\imath}ko$, $munh\bar{a}$, or $avvalk\bar{o}$.

Pronouns.—The various pronouns will be found in the grammatical sketch on pp. 628 and f.

I, I, most closely corresponds to Kurukh ēn, and nan, we, to Kurukh nanhai, our, etc. It should be noted that there is only one form of the plural of the first person, just as is also the case in Kanarese and Göndī. This state of affairs in Brāhūī is perhaps due to Eranian influence. Compare, however, the remarks in the general introduction to the Dravidian family on p. 293 above.

Dr. Trumpp was of opinion that the initial k of kane, me; kanā, my, etc., might be due to the influence of Balōchī, in which language a k is prefixed to the present tense of verbs beginning with a vowel; thus, k-āyān, I may come. The initial k in kane might, however, also be compared with ng in Kurukh ng and me, etc.

 $N\bar{\imath}$, thou, and num, you, most closely correspond to Kurukh and Malto $n\bar{\imath}n$, thou; $n\bar{\imath}m$, you; Tamil $n\bar{\imath}$, thou, etc.

The demonstrative pronouns do not, of course, differ for gender. When followed by a verb beginning with a vowel the nominative singular often ends in d. Thus, \tilde{o} -d are, he is.

The regular inflexion will be seen from the skeleton grammar on pp. 628 and f. The d which ends the base in the oblique cases is often changed to d and r; thus, $\bar{o}de$, $\bar{o}de$, or $\bar{o}re$, him.

A pronominal suffix ta or tah occurs in forms such as barah-tah, his father.

Just as is the case in Kurukh there are two forms of the remote demonstrative pronoun, viz, \bar{o} , that, he; and \bar{e} , that, far off. \bar{O} corresponds to Tamil $ava\underline{n}$, etc., and \bar{e} should be compared with the base \bar{e} , that, in Kui. The pronoun $d\bar{a}$, this, corresponds to Tamil $iva\underline{n}$, etc. Compare Brāhūī $d\bar{e}r$, Tamil $y\bar{a}r$, Kanarese $d\bar{a}va$ and $y\bar{a}va$, who? $D\bar{a}$, which? also occurs in Tulu.

The Eranian ham, even, just, is often prefixed to demonstrative pronouns, and it often does not add anything to the meaning. Thus, $ham-\bar{o}$, just he, he; $han-d\bar{a}$, this.

Relative clauses are effected as in Balōchī. The Balōchī relative particle *ki* has been introduced into the language, and it is used in exactly the same way as in Balōchī and Persian.

Verbs.—The verbal noun ends in *ing* and is regularly inflected. Thus, $n\bar{\imath}$ hining- $t\bar{\imath}$ us, thou going-in art, thou art going.

The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, bin, hear. The corresponding plural ends in $b\bar{o}$, thus, $bin-b\bar{o}$, hear ye. Several verbs, however, form their imperative in an irregular way. Thus many verbs ending in n change their n into r in the imperative, e.g., man-ing, to be; mar, be; huning, to see; hur, see. From tining, to give, is formed $\bar{e}te$, plural $\bar{e}t-b\bar{o}$, give. In other cases the final consonant is dropped, or a th is added. Thus, $p\bar{a}ning$, to say; $p\bar{a}$, say; $t\bar{u}ling$, to sit; $t\bar{u}l-th$, sit.

The verbal noun is sometimes used as an imperative; thus, rasing, come.

A suffix ak is often added in the singular. Thus, kaning, to do; kar-ak, do.

A final r or gh is dropped before the plural suffix $b\bar{o}$; thus, kar-ak, do; $ka-b\bar{o}$, do ye; $sh\bar{a}gh$, lay; $sh\bar{a}b\bar{o}$, lay ye.

The personal terminations of finite tenses are as follows:-

Sing. 1.	v, t	Plur.	1.	n
2.	8		2.	$rar{e}$
3.	i, e, ak		3.	r, ō

The form v of the suffix of the first person singular is used in the conjunctive present, the suffix t in other tenses. The suffix \bar{o} of the third person plural is used in the past tense in addition to the suffix r. Thus, <u>khalkur</u> and <u>khalkv</u>, they struck. It is never used when the base of the past tense ends in a vowel. The suffix \bar{o} is perhaps the old neuter suffix, and r the corresponding rational suffix. Compare Kanarese $\bar{a}re$, neuter ave.

The plural suffixes of the first and second persons likewise correspond to forms used in other Dravidian languages.

On the other hand, it is difficult to compare the singular suffixes with corresponding forms occurring in other Dravidian forms of speech.

The various tenses are formed as follows:-

A conjunctive present is formed by adding i or e to the base. Thus, <u>kh</u>aniv or <u>kh</u>anev, I may see. This i or e is dropped after long vowels; thus, $p\bar{a}v$, I may say. A similar suffix is used in Malto where we find forms such as *bandin*, I draw; daryin, I catch. Compare also Kuī $p\bar{a}gi\tilde{i}$, I beat, $gi\tilde{i}$, I do, etc.

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The conjunctive present denotes the action of the verb without restriction as to time. It thus corresponds to the so-called indefinite tense of other Dravidian languages.

The ordinary present is derived from the conjunctive present in a way peculiar to Brāhūi. A k is added in the third person singular; the second person plural remains unchanged, and an a is added in the remaining forms. Thus, <u>khaniva</u> (or <u>khaneva</u>, and so forth), I see; <u>khanisa</u>, thou seest; <u>khanik</u>, he sees; <u>khanina</u>, we see; <u>khanirē</u>, you see; <u>khanira</u>, they see.

The future is formed from the base by adding \bar{o} . Compare Kurukh o. A vowel is dropped before this \bar{o} . Thus, $\underline{khan\bar{o}t}$, I shall see; $\underline{khan\bar{o}s}$, thou wilt see; $k\bar{o}t$, I shall go, and so forth. This form seems to be derived from a future participle ending in \bar{o} by adding the present tense of the verb substantive. A future perfect is formed from the same participle by adding the past tense of the verb substantive. Thus, $\underline{khan\bar{o}sut}$, I shall have seen. A future participle $\underline{khan\bar{o}}$ does not, however, appear to be used.

The base of the past tense is formed in various ways. Most commonly an \bar{a} or \bar{e} is added to the base. Thus, taming, to fall; past base $tam\bar{a}$; tharing, to cut; past base $thar\bar{e}$. Another suffix of the past is k; thus, $\underline{khaling}$, to strike, past base \underline{khalk} .

The suffix \bar{a} is sometimes added to the verbal noun; thus, $rasing - \bar{a}$, he arrived. Such forms are especially common in borrowed words.

Several verbs form their past tense by adding an s. Thus:-

past	bas
,,	mas
,,	tis
,,	$t\bar{u}s$
,,	salis
,,	$h\bar{\imath}s$
	"

A final n is often replaced by an r in the past. Thus:—

kaning, to dopast $kar\bar{e}$ daning, to remove,, $dar\bar{e}$ $p\bar{a}ning$, to say,, $p\bar{a}r\bar{e}$

Other verbs are slightly irregular. Thus:-

bining, to hear past bing kuning, to eat ,, kung kahing, to die ,, khask

We have not as yet sufficient materials for classifying all these various forms. The k-suffix also occurs in Kurukh and Malto. It is perhaps originally identical with the t or d suffix of other Dravidian languages. Compare Brāhūī kun, Tamil tin, eat. The s-suffix is well known from Tamil dialects, Kurukh and Malto (ch), Gōndī, Telugu, etc. It is probably a modification of t or k. Dr. Trumpp compares the \bar{e} -suffix with i in Tamil, Malayāļam, etc. The \bar{a} -suffix has probably a similar origin.

The ordinary past tense is apparently formed by adding the present tense of the verb substantive to the past base. The past tenses of <u>khaling</u>, to strike, and <u>khaning</u>, to see, are formed as follows:—

S	ing. 1. <u>kh</u> alk-uṭ, <u>kh</u> anā-ṭ	Plur. 1. khalkun, khanān
	2. <u>kh</u> alk-us, <u>kh</u> anā-s	2. <u>kh</u> alkurē, <u>kh</u> anārē
	3. $\underline{kh}alk(-ak)$, $\underline{kh}an\bar{a}(-k)$	3. <u>kh</u> alkur <u>kh</u> alkō } <u>kh</u> anār
	from the second	khalkō S

An imperfect is formed from the ordinary past in the same way as the present from the conjunctive present. Thus, <u>kh</u> alkuṭa, I was striking.

A pluperfect is formed from the past base by adding the past tense of the verb substantive. Thus, <u>khalk-asut</u>, I had struck; <u>khanā-sut</u>, I had seen.

The past base was perhaps originally a conjunctive participle as in most other Dravidian languages. It is also used in order to form a perfect. An un, or, after vowels, an n, is then added to the past base, and the present tense of the verb substantive is suffixed. Thus, <u>khalk-un-ut</u>, I have struck; <u>khanā-n-ut</u>, I have seen. The analogy of other Dravidian languages seems to point to the conclusion that the forms ending in un or n are nouns of agency formed from the past base by adding the common Dravidian n-suffix. The literal meaning of <u>khalkunut</u> would then be 'I am a man who has struck.'

An adverbial participle is formed by adding $\bar{o}k$ to the base. Thus, $\underline{kh}al\bar{o}k$, striking. It is inflected as an adjective, *i.e.*, the suffixes \bar{a} and \bar{o} can be added. Dr. Trumpp compares the Balochi participle ending in $\bar{o}\underline{kh}$; thus, $\underline{jan\bar{o}\underline{kh}}$, a striker.

Another participle is formed by adding the suffix esa or isa. I have also found it combined with the suffix at; thus, $\bar{o}d$ $mu\underline{kh}t\bar{a}j$ maresa-at $hin\bar{a}$, he needy becoming went, he began to become in want.

Brāhūī possesses a negative conjugation comprising all the tenses. A similar state of affairs is also found in Kōlāmī, Naikī, Kuī, and other dialects. The formation of the various tenses in Brāhūī is, however, apparently different. The usual principle prevailing in other Dravidian languages is to add the personal terminations to a negative base. In Brāhūī, on the other hand, a negative verb is apparently added to the positive base and conjugated throughout. We may perhaps compare the use of negative verbs such as polnā, not to be able, in Kurukh. The negative particle tōten in Kōlāmī is perhaps also a past tense of a negative verb, and in some Gōndī dialects an inflected hille is used.

There are two such negative verbs in Brāhūi, one used in the imperative, the conjunctive present, the future, and the tenses formed from them, and the other used in the past tenses.

The former begins with p, before which a final r and gh are dropped. After vowels it often becomes f. Thus, ka-pa, do not do; ba-f, he may not come.

The other negative verb begins with t, before which the base is changed in various ways. The regular terminations of the negative verb are thus:—

	Conj. pres.	Future.	Past.	Perfect.	Imperative
	-			= +	
Sing. 1.	par	parōţ	tavaţ	tanuţ	
2.	pis	parōs	tavis	tanus	pa
3.	· p	parõe	tau	- tane	
Plur. 1.	pan	parōn	tavan	tanun	
2.	pirē	parörē	tavirē	tanurē	pa-bō
3.	pas	parōr	tavas	$tanar{o}$	

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Note the termination s of the third person plural of the conjunctive present and the perfect. The corresponding form of the present tense ends in pasa.

Other tenses are regularly formed. Thus, <u>kh</u>anpara, I do not see; <u>kh</u>anparōsut, I shall not have seen; <u>kh</u>antavasut, I had not seen, etc.

It is difficult to find any analogies to these forms in other Dravidian languages. The t-forms can perhaps be compared with Kōlāmī tōten, and similar forms appear to be current in Tulu where we find malpuji, I do not wake; malt'diji, I did not wake, etc.

It should be noted that the past tense of the verb substantive, alla-ot, I was not, seems to be connected with the common Dravidian alla, not.

Brāhūī also possesses a passive voice. It is formed from a base which is identical with the verbal noun. Thus, <u>khaning-iv</u>, I may be seen. The conjugation is regular.

The preceding remarks will have shown that Brāhūī is a distinctly Dravidian language. It seems to have more points of analogy with Kurukh and Malto than with other dialects belonging to the same family. The language has, on the other hand, been influenced by Eranian forms of speech. We have already drawn attention to some few points. The greatest influence can, however, be traced in the vocabulary which to a very great extent differs from that of other Dravidian languages. It is also possible that Brāhūī has been influenced by yet other different forms of speech. We are not, however, in a position to take up that question in this place. The Brāhūīs have been so long separated from their cousins to the south that it is more to be wondered that they have preserved so many traces of Dravidian linguistic principles and tendencies than that their language has in many points struck out independent lines of its own.

It is hoped that the preceding remarks will enable the student to grasp the principal features of the language from the short Skeleton Grammar which follows. They are mostly based on Dr. Trumpp's work, to which the student is referred for further details. Dr. Duka's paper, quoted under authorities above, is a translation of Dr. Trumpp's sketch. It is not quite free from mistakes, but can on the whole safely be consulted by those who are not in a position to use the original. Of the three specimens printed below on pp. 630 and ff., the two first have been received from Baluchistan, and the third from Karachi. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, forwarded from Baluchistan, will be found below on pp. 649 and ff.

BRĀHŪĪ SKELETON

I .- NOUNS .- Lummah, mother ; urā, house ; nat, foot ; khal, stone.

Instead of lummak-e, etc., we also find $lumma\underline{gk}$ -e, etc. Similarly also $ur\bar{a}\underline{gk}$ - $\bar{a}e$, in the house, etc.

II.-PRONOUNS.-

	I.	We.	Thou.	You.	Self.	Who ?	That.	They.
Nom	ī.	nan.	nī.	num.	tēn-(aţ).	dēr.	ō, ōd.	ōfk.
AccDat	kane.	nane.	nē.	nume.	tēne.	dēre.	ōde.	ōfte.
Abl	kane-ān.	nane-ān.	ni-ān.	nume-ān.	tēn-ān.	dēr-ān.	ōd-ān.	ōft-ān.
Gen	kanā.	nanā.	nā.	numā.	tēnā.	dinnā.	ōnā.	ōftā.
(kane-āe.	nane-āe.	ni-āe.	nume-āe.	tēni-āe.	dēr-āe.	ōd-ās.	ōft-āe.
Loc {	kane-ţī.	nane-țī.	กē•ţī•	nume-ţī.	tēn-ţī.	dēr-ţī.	ō(-de)-ṭī.	ōfte-ṭī.

Instead of \$\bar{o}de\$, etc., we also find \$\bar{o}de\$ or \$\bar{o}re\$, etc. \$\bar{E}\$, that, plur. \$\bar{e}fk\$, and \$d\bar{a}\$, this, plur. \$d\bar{a}fk\$, are inflected as \$\bar{o}\$. Instead of \$d\bar{a}d\bar{a}n\$, etc., we often find \$d\bar{a}de\bar{a}n\$, etc.

\$\bar{O}\$, that; \$\bar{e}\$, that; \$d\bar{a}\$, this, when used as adjectives, and \$ant\$, what \$\bar{e}ar\bar{a}\$, what \$\bar{e}\$ are not inflected.

\$Ki\$, which is used as a relative particle.

III.—VERBS.—

A. Verb Substantive.-

					Positive form.		NEGATIVE FORM.		
				Pro	esent.	Past.	Present.	Past.	
				I.	II.				
Sing.	1			uį.	aref.	asuţ.	afaṭ.	alla-oţ	
	2			us.	ares.	asus.	afes.	alla-os.	
	3	f , ; .		ē.	are, (a-)se.	as(-ak), asas.	af (-ak).	alla-o.	
Plur.	1			un.	aren.	asun.	afan.	alla-on.	
	2			urē.	arerē.	asurē.	aferē.	alla-orē.	
	3			ō(,ur).	arer.	asur.	afas.	alla-or.	

GRAMMAR.

B. Finite Verb.—
I. Positive verb.

Khaning, to see. Participles .- khanīk, khanisa.

			Conjunct. Pres.	Present.	Future.	Past.	Imperfect.	Perfect.	Imperative.
Sing. 1			khaniv.	khaniv-a.	khanō-ţ.	khanā-ţ.	khanāţ-a.	khanān-uṭ.	
2			khanis.	khanis-a.	<u>kh</u> anō-s.	khanā-s.	khanīs-a.	khanān-us.	khan(-ak).
3			khane.	khanik.	khanō-e.	\underline{kh} anā(-k).	khanāk-a.	<u>kh</u> anān-ē.	
Plur. 1			khanin.	khanin-a.	khanō-n.	khanā-n.	<u>kh</u> anān-a.	khanān-un.	
2			<u>kh</u> anirē.	<u>kh</u> anirē.	<u>kh</u> anō-rē.	khanā-rē.	<u>kh</u> anārē.	<u>kh</u> anān-urē.	khan-bō.
3			khanir.	khanir-a.	khanō-r.	khanā-r.	khanīr-a.	khanān-ō.	

Present definite, <u>khaning-tī ut.</u>—Future perfect <u>kh</u>anōsut. Pluperfect, <u>kh</u>anāsut.

The third person singular of the past tense often ends in a consonant such as k, g, or s. An u or o is then inserted between the final consonant and other suffixes, and the third person plural of the past ends in ō or ur. Thus, <u>kh</u>al-k-ut, I struck; <u>kh</u>al-k-ō and khal-k-ur, they struck; khal-k-asut, I had struck; khal-k-un-ut, I have struck, etc.

II.—Negative verb.

				Conjunct. pres.	Present.	Future.	Past.	Imperfect.	Perfect.	Imperative.
Sing.	1		-	khanpar.	khanpar-a.	<u>kh</u> anparōṭ.	khantavat.	khantavaţ-a.	khantanuț.	
	2			khanpis.	khanpis-a.	<u>kh</u> anparös.	khantavis.	khantavis-a.	khantanus.	<u>kh</u> an-pa.
	3			khanp.	khanp-ak.	<u>kh</u> anparōe.	khantau.	khantavak-a.	khantanë.	
Plur.	1			khanpan.	khanpan-a.	<u>kh</u> anparōn.	<u>kh</u> antavan.	khantavan-a.	khantanun.	
	2			khanpirë.	khanpirē.	khanparörē.	<u>kh</u> antavirē.	khantavirē.	khantanurē.	khan-pa-bō
	3			khanpas.	khanpas-a.	<u>kh</u> anparör.	khantavas.	khantavas-a.	khantan-ō.	

Future perfect, khanparosut.

Pluperfect, khantavasut.

The p of the negative suffix, before which an r and $g\underline{k}$ are dropped, is often changed to f or v after vowels. Thus, $bafar\bar{o}t$, I

C. Irregular Verbs.—Several verbs are irregular in the imperative and the past tense, some also in other forms. Comparathe following table:—

Verbal not	ın.		Conjunct. Pres.	Imperative.	Future.	Past.	Negative Imperat
<u>kh</u> aling, strike		_	khalev.	khal-th.	<u>kh</u> alōṭ.	khalkut.	khal-pa.
haling, take			halev.	halth.	ħalōţ.	halkuţ.	hal-pa.
bining, hear			binev.	bin.	binōţ.	binguţ.	binī-pa.
kuning, eat .			kunev.	kun.	kunōt.	kunguţ.	kun-pa.
kahing, die .			kahev.	kah.	kahōţ.	khaskuţ.	kahī-pa.
huning, see .			hurev.	hur.	huröt.	hunāţ.	hun-pa.
daning, remove			dēv.	dar-ak.	darōţ.	darēţ.	da-pa.
pāning, say			pāv.	pā.	pōţ.	pārēt.	pā-pa.
kaning, do .			kēv.	kar-ak.	karōt.	karēt.	ka-pa.
maning, be .			marev.	mar.	marōţ.	masut.	ma-fa.
baning, come			barev.	bar-ak.	barōt.	basut.	ba-fa.
tining, give		٠.	· · · · · · · · ·	ēte.	ētōţ.	tisut.	ti-fa.
tūling, sit .			tūlev.	tūl-th.	tūlōṭ.	tāsuţ.	tūlī-pa.
hining, go .			kāv.	hin.	kōţ.	hināţ.	hin-pa.

Passive voice.—Formed by adding ing to the base and conjugating throughout. Thus, <u>kh</u>aning-ing, to be seen; present <u>kh</u>aningiv-a; future <u>kh</u>aning-ōt; past <u>kh</u>aning-ōt, etc.

Causals.—Formed by adding ef or if to the base and conjugating throughout. Thus, raseling, to cause to come; present

rasefiv-a; future rasef of; past rasefet, and so forth.

[No. 91.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

BRĀHŪĪ.

SPECIMEN I.

(KALAT, BALUCHISTAN.)

Bandagh-as-e irā mār assur. Ōftiān chunakā mār $ten\bar{a}$ bāwa-e Man-one-to two sons were. Them-from the-younger sonhisfather-to ki, 'bāwah. pārē mālān girā-as ki kanā bashkh marek. kane said that, 'father, property-from thing-a which myshare is, me-to ēte.' Ō tenā kaţiā-e ōfti-tō bashkh-kare. Bhāz dē give.' He his living them-with division-made. Many days gidarengtavesur ki chunā mār tenā kull māle much-kare ō thatpassed-not-were smallson his allproperty together-madeand murrō vatanase-āe mosāfire-āe hinā ö tenā ēre kull māle far country-a-to journey-on went and there his allproperty **harāmanga** kārēmte-at gum-kare. Vakht-as ki ō kull māle $ten\bar{a}$ forbidden works-with spend-made. Time-a thathe allproperty hiskharch karēsas hamō mulka-tī bhallō dukkāl-as tammā, ō ōd . spent had-made thatcountry-in heavy famine-a fell, andhe mukhtāj maresa-at hinā. Gurā ō hinā ham-ē mulka-nā needy becoming went. Afterwards. he went outthatcountry-of bandagh-ase-tō sangat mas. Hamō shaskh ōde tenā hūkamātā man-one-with follower became. That person him hisswine-of khvafing-ki tenā daghārte-āe mön tis. Ō khvashi-at pachkhāti-at ki feeding-for his field-to presence He gladlygave. husks-with that hūkamāk kungurak tenā phide sēra karēka kas-as ōde swine eating-were his belly satisfiedand person-a was-making him-togirā-as titavaka. Vakht-as ki hōsha-āe bas. pārē ki, thing-a was-not-giving. Time-a thatsense-on came, saidthat. ʻakhkhadar kanā bāvah-nā naukarāte-ān ke arer ōft iragh bhāz father-of . how-many my servants-from arethatthem-to breadmuch ō ōfti-ān ē, ziāte ham are. ō ī bhīn-ān kahing-ti ut. is. and them-from excess also is, and I hunger-from dying-in am. Ī bash mareva ō tenā bāvaghāe kāva ō ōde pāva ki. "ō I standing become andmy father-to him-to go and that.

bāvah, ī khudā-nā ō nā mōne-tī malāmat uţ, ō dāsā lāiq I father, God-of andfront-in blamedthyandam, now I worthy ki afat kane $n\bar{a}$ mār pār. Kane $ten\bar{a}$ naukarāte-ān asit ·am-not that thythey-say. Meyour-own servants-from me son onekah." Gurā ō bash mas ō tenā bāvah-is bas. make." Afterwards. he uprightbecame and hisfather-near came. Magar ō hannā bhāz murr as ki ōnā bāvah ōde khanā. ōnā But hestillvery far 2008 that his father himsaw. his tah hālāe raham bas, dūdengā shāghā ōnā likhe-tī dūki condition-on compassion then came, ran hisneck-on hands buk halk. Mār ō ōde tenā bāva-e pārē ki, 'bāvah, ī took. and him-to kiss The-son his father-to that, said'father, I khudā-nā gunahgār-ase ut ō ... $n\bar{a}$ mōn-țī ham gunahgār ut, ō God-of sinner-a amand thy presence-in alsosinner and gud ĩ lāiq affut ki dārān kane pār.' $n\bar{a}$ mār this-from after I worthy am-not that me thy . sonthey-call. bāvah-tah tenā naukarāte Magar pārē ki. 'kull-ān jovānangā the-father-his saidButhisservants-to that, 'all-from goodhatibō poshākāte ō ōde bērif-bō. dūtī-tah challavas shābō clothes bring-ye andhimcause-to-put-on, hand-on-his ring-a put nate-tī-tah ō mocharete ētibō. Babō ki dāsā āvār kunēn and shoes feet-on-his give. Come that now together we-may-eat ō khvash marēn. Antae, ki kanā mār khaskas, phadāe and merry may-become. Why, that my son dead-was, heagain gōingāsas, Ō mas; ō ō khaningā.' zindah ōfk khvash maresa alive became; he lost-was, hewas-found.' Andthey merry becoming hinar. went.

niyāma-tī ōnā bhallā mulkāe Handa mār tenā asaka. Vakhtas ki This time-at his elder 80% his land-in Time was. that ō urāghān bas khurk mas, nāchanā ō sāzanā ō tavāre andhouse-from near came became. dance-of he andmusic-of sound Naukarāte-ān asite tavār-kare ō bing. harrifē ki, 'dā kārēmnā one-to heard. Servants-from call-made andaskedthat, this action-of ē? Naukar mānā ōde pārē ki, ant 'nā ilum bassonē meaning is?' The-servant him-to what saidthat, 'thy brother come-is mehmāne-as $n\bar{a}$ bāvah bhallō karēnē. ki antae. ō ōde durākh and thy father greatfeast-a made-has, why, that hehimwhole jore-at khanānē.' Gurā ō khafa mas ō tahe-tī hintay. welfare-with seen-has. Then he angrybecame and inside went-not. hītāe bāvah Handa pēsh tammā ō ōde minnat kare. Ō word-at the-father out This fell and him-to favour made. H_e

tenā bāvae 'hur, jovāb tis ki, ī dākha sāl nā khizmate his father-to answergave that, 'see, I these-many thyyears service karēnut, ō hech $n\bar{a}$ hukame pirghtanut; magar nī gāhas done-have, andanythyorder thou broken-not-have; buttime-a kane dagharas ham ti-taves ki ī tenā dostati-to majlis-as me-to kid-a even gavest-not that I my-own friends-with feast-a karēta. Magar dāsā ki $n\bar{a}$ mār bassonē ki $n\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}le$ might-make. Butthatnow thy sonhas-come who thy property kinjerīte-tō bāy tissonē, nī örki mehmāne-as karēnus.' Ō õ harlots-with loss given-has, thou him-for feast-a made-hast.' And he ōde pārē ki, 'abā, $n\bar{i}$ har vakht kan-tō thud ō us, him-to saidO-son, that, thoualltime me-with together art, and girā-as ki are kull $n\bar{a}$ ē. $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{\tilde{a}}$ munāsib as ki nan khvashī thatthing-a isallthine is. Thisproper was that we merry kēn ō marēn; khvash antae, ki $n\bar{a}$ īlum khask-as, should-make andmerry should-become; why, that thy brotherdead-was, ō pēnd vār zindah mas; gōingāsas, ō hāzir ē.' he another timealivebecame; lost-was, he present

[No. 92.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

BRĀHŪĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(KALAT, BALUCHISTAN.)

Gurgīnaghāe hinān. Murād Dākān khānnā shahr-tī hinān. Murād Gurgina-to we-went. khān-of Here-from village-in we-went. gidāringān Adamzaitekān hinān. Ōŗe hinān ki gurā sāhib Adamzai-from There-from we-passed we-went. There that then Sahib wentrisālanā şāḥib ō harsingan phadāe. Nanēkān ō Sahib I turnedcavalry-of and back. At-night andcavalry andpagaghāe Pēnd-vār khān-nā shahr-tī masun. şāhib ō Murād Againmorning-in Sahib andkhān-vf village-in we-were. Murād Murraïnā shahrāe sāhib ō risāla zēn karēr risālanā Murrai-of village-to cavalry saddlemadeandSakib andcavalry-of Sāhib illā. Magar i Ī hintavat. kane handare hinār. sahib-tō I ButSahib hereleft.Sahib-with went-not. me went. bingunut ki sābib Hasane kalkunē õ Tāmāse bandaghātiān Sahib Hasan arrested-has andTāmās heard that men-from bas, Vakht-as phadāe halkunē. ki sāhib Murād khāne ham back Timethat Sahibcame, and Murād $kh\bar{a}n$ alsoarrested-has. khāne khanāt. khantiat Hasane Murād khāne ō Tāmēs ō ī tenā andeyes-with Hasan and $Mur\bar{a}d$ $kh\bar{a}n$ Tānas <u>kh</u>ān saw. my-own Ι Ēlō dū-tī tis. dū-ţī tis. irā kaidie nanā risālanā Hasane Other hand-in gave. hand-in two prisoners our cavalry-of gare. Hasanharriftav hechrā sāhib naneān pārēr ki, Kaidik nanēkān nane that, 'the-Sahib us-from anything asked-not saidPrisoners at-night us-to ō mas hēs.' sōb-tō sāhib rāhī Guṛā nane ō becamewayfarer andbrought.' Then morning-in Sahib and iragh Hasan-ki ki shām mas Vakht-as Chichizai-ți bas. evening Hasan-for breadthatbecame Time-a came. Chichizai-in bisēsas. sovār iraghāte Jemadār Gohar khān-nā Ham-ō hēsur. had-baked. sovār Jamdār Gohar khān-of Those breads they-brought. kaneān kuneva, ٠ī iragh tenā Hasan risāla-nā sovārte pārē ki, 'I bread me-from own eat, cavalry-of εουārs-to saidthat, Hasan 4 M

murr mabo. Sik Sovāk asur ō pārēr 'Sāḥib-nā ki, hukam af far become.' Sovārs Sikhs andwere saidthat. ' Sahih-of orderis-not ki nan murr maren.' Guṛā Hasan khafa mas ō iraghāte thatwe far should-be.' Then Hasanangrybecameandbreadsjōa-tī biţē. Nēm shafāe ki bingun mas arz karē ki, stream-in threw. Half night-in thathungry madebecamepetition that, 'kane ītibō.' iragh Gurā sikāk iragh tisur, tah ō hamō iraghāte · me-to breadgive.' Then Sikhsbreadgave, thenhe thosebreadskung. Gurā ō-nā hāl avalān ham ganda mas. ate.Then him-of condition first-from evenbadbecame.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

We went from here to Gurgina, and proceeded to Murād Khān's village. We started thence and went out from Adamzai. When we came there, the Sahib and the cavalry and the Sahib of the cavalry turned back. At night we were in Murād Khān's village. Again, in the morning, the Sahib and the cavalry Sahib and the cavalry saddled their horses and went to Murrai's village. I did not go with the Sahib. He left me here. But I learnt from the men that the Sahib had arrested Ḥasan, Ṭāmās, and Murād Khān. When the Sahib returned, I with my own eyes saw Hasan and Murād Khān and Tāmās Khān. The Sahib left Hasan with the cavalry, and handed the two other prisoners over At night the prisoners said to us, 'the Sahib did not ask anything when he brought us.' In the morning the Sahib set out for Chichizai. At night bread was brought for Ḥasan. A sowar of the Jamdar Gohar Khān had baked it. Ḥasan said to the sowars of the cavalry that he wanted to eat the bread alone, and asked them to withdraw. The sowars were Sikhs, and they said, 'the Sahib's order is not to leave you.' Hasan then became angry and threw the bread into the river. Towards midnight he became hungry and asked for bread. The Sikhs gave him some, and he ate it. Afterwards he was at once taken ill.

[No. 93.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

BRĀHŪĪ.

SPECIMEN III.

(KARACHI.)

Ī Juma, mār Kamāl-nā, kās-nā gudām-nā jamadār Karāchī-nā I Juma, son Kamāl-of, wool-of godown-of jamadär $Kar\bar{a}ch\bar{\imath}$ -of tūlōksiyot. Qasam kunev pāv, handā-tūnā aulikō dēh bēg-nä I-do inhabitant-am. OathI-say, this-month first dayevening-of baja gud harch pañj bēgārī asur, ōftin rōzu tisut. Ōftān five striking after allcoolies were, them-to wages I-gave. Them-from kās-nā gatrīs Hayat khān-nā gud kūs-nā kīrghān ī khanāt. as, after wool-of bundle-a $Hay\bar{a}t$ khān-of shirt-of below I was, saw. Ī halkut. Ī yakdam ō-nā jhārū pēn hīchrā khantavat. Ī I I at-once him-of search took. otheranything found-not. I padāe ōde gudām-nā sētāe darēt. Sēt pārē, 'dā afterwards himstore-of chief-to brought. The-chief said, this gunah-gāre pōlīs chauki-ți dar, dārā firyād Ī kar.' hamdun police culpritstation-in bring, make.' him-on complaint Ι so Ĩ khanāt karēt. ōde Hākimā darē. Hākim pārē, ' nī tenā $\cdot I$ did. saw him Hakim-to took. $H\bar{a}kim$ said, · thou thy-own Ō bachāī-nā shāhadā tin-hatar.' tining katav. Ō nēt defence-of witness give-bring. HeHeto-give did-not-do. at-last ٠ī qabūldār mas, tenā chunā-nā barzi-kin kās durzāsut hafēsut.' $^{\epsilon}I$ child-of pillow-for took.' admitter became, my-own woolstolebīs rūpaī-nā dand-nā sazā tis. Hākim ōde rupees-of fine-of punishment $H\bar{a}kim$ him-to twenty gave.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

I Juma, son of Kamāl, residing at Karachi, employed as a Jamedar at the wool stores, do state on solemn affirmation that on the first day of the current month after five o'clock in the evening when all the coolies had been paid their wages for the day, I found a bundle of wool concealed under Ḥayāt Khān's shirt. I at once searched the man's person, but found nothing else. I then took him to the Sēth of the godown and he

told me to take the culprit to the Police station and lodge a complaint against him. I did so and saw that the Policemen took him before a Magistrate; the Magistrate then called on the accused for witnesses, which he was unable to produce, and finally he admitted that he was removing the wool clandestinely to make a pillow for his baby. The Magistrate punished him with a fine of R20.

SEMI-DRAVIDIAN DIALECTS.

Attention has already been drawn to the fact that several Dravidian tribes in the North have abandoned their original speech for some Aryan dialect. A good instance is the so-called Halabī which will, in this Survey, be dealt with in connexion with Marāthī. It is a mixed form of speech which has been strongly influenced by Marāthī and Chhattīsgarhī.

In this place we shall give specimens of two similar dialects, as an appendix to the Dravidian family, in order to enable the student to recognize how thorough the influence of Aryan speech has been in such cases. The dialects in question are the so-called Ladhādī or Randhādī of Amraoti and the Bhariā dialect spoken in Narsinghpur and Chhindwara. According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey the number of speakers is as follows:—

Ladhādī				•										2,122
Bhariā	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	330
								0				TOTAL		2,452

Both dialects have formerly been classed as Gondi. At the present day, however, they have become quite Aryanized.

The dialect of the Ladhādis or Randhādīs of Amraoti is a dialect of the same kind as Hal^abī. Conjunctive participles often add a suffix kanī which can be compared with kun in Gōṇḍī; thus, āi-kanī, having come; jāi-kanī, having gone. On the whole, however, the dialect has no more anything to do with Gōṇḍī or with any other Dravidian form of speech, as will be seen from the specimen which follows:—

[No. 94.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

SEMI-DRAVIDIAN DIALECTS.

LADHĀDĪ.

(DISTRICT AMRAOTI.)

Ēkā mānsā-lā du turyā bhait. Ēk turā bāpā-lā bōlyā, 'bāwā, One man-to twowere. sons Oneson the-father-to said, father, jō jingī-kī bātnī āī tī malā dēnā.' Mang ō-lā bātnī whichproperty-of share comes thatme-to give.' Thenhim-to division Mang thoda din-kanī nānā turā sab jamā karīmaking Then days-after few the-younger sonalltogether havingkani dūr dusryā mulkh-mā jāt lagyā, ākhīn whāsan āpnā paisā madefar othercountry-in going began, andthere hismoney uthāi dārīs. Mang tyān sab kharchī dālī-par unē spending threw. Then him-by allhaving-spent throwing-after thatmulkh-mā badā kāl padyā. Kāl padyā-kanī ō-lā adchan bhai. country-in bigfamine fell. Famine falling-after him-to difficulty became. Tab ō unē mulkh-mā ėk mānsā-jabarī rahyā. Unī ō-lā Then he thatcountry-in oneman-with stayed. Him-by then him dukar charāwal āpnē khēt-mā pathāis. Mang dukar-nī sāl khāī-upar swine to-feed his field-in was-sent. Then swine-of husks eating-on unē āpnē pēţ bhari, asā ō-lā samiā whai. Mang u-lā him-by his bellywas-filled, suchhim-to thoughtwas. Then him-to kāī nakō dis. Mang ō sudhi-par āi-kanī bōlyā, 'mōrā anything not-at-allgave. Then hesense-on having-come said, bāp-kā kitik rōj-dār-sanī bhakkam bhākar sē, bajar mī bhukī-nī father-of how-many servants-to much breadbutΙ hunger-with marî gayā. Mī uthī-kanī āpnē bāp-kondī jāũ, ō-lā kahũ. having-died went. I having-arisen myfather-to will-go, him-to will-say, āndhī bāpā, Dēw-kā urphāţ $k\bar{a}m$ karis, ō-kā sāmnē father, God-of against evildeedI-did, him-of before sin $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}$ ō pāsūn tōrā pōryā nōkō whāy. Āpnā ēkā roj-dar-asa rākhī dhar." Now fromson not-at-all am. thyYour servant-like keeping onekeep." uthī-kanī Mang āpnā bāp-kondī gayā. Mang ō dūr sē itnā-mā Then having-arisen his father-near went. Then hefar that-in ō-kā bāp ō-lā dekhī-kanī kīv-āis. Ānkhī wō đawdi-kani ō-kā his father himhaving-seen compassion-got. And he having-run his

galā-lā jhõvyā, jāi-kanī ō-kā mukā liīs. Mang ō-kā põryā bolya, neck-to fell, having-gone hiskisstook. Then hissonsaid, 'Dēwā-kō sāmnē pāp karīsũ. Abō pāsūn torā pōryā nōkō whay.' God-of before sinI-did. Now from thy son not-at-all am. Bāpan chākrā-lā kais, ' śābūt āngrakhā lāi-kanī ō-lā The:father-by servant-to was-said, ' good clothhaving-taken him-to ghāl, ānkhī ō-kā hāt-mē mundī pāy-mō jōdā ghāl. Apan khāi-kanī put, andhishand-on ring foot-on shoeput. Wehaving-eaten khūs bhayāsũ. Hā āmrā ṭuryā maryā bachyā, tō phirī-kanī jitā will-become. Thismerry our sondeadwent, then again aliveWō hārpī gayā-tā, tō sāmpadyā.' Mang wā khūs bhayā. became. Helostgone-was, then was-found.' Thentheymerry became. Yā bakt-mā ō-kā badā turyā khēt-mā Mang hōtā. wō gharākonī This time-at hisbigson field-in was. Then hehouse-near ō-në āyā-par bajā tar suni-aya. Mang ēknī mānsā-lā bulāy-kanī coming-on him-by musicthenheard-was. Then one man-to having-called ōnē pusīs, 'vā kāy sē?' Wō-nā kahīs kĩ, 'tōrā him-by ' this it-was-asked, what Him-by is?' it-was-said that,'thy bhāi āis, ānkhīn wō tōrā bāp-lā milyā Ē-kā śē. karitã brotherandcame, thyfather-to met is. This-of for-the-reason badā jēwan ō-nā kari-sē.' Mang wo rāgē bharī-kanī feast bighim-by done-is.' Then heanger-with being-filled went-not. Ē-kā ē-kā $sath\tilde{i}$ bāp bāhīr āi-kanī. wō-lā samjāb lagyā. Pan This-of for hisfather outhaving-come himto-entreat began. Butbāp-lā kĩ, bōlyā 'dēkh bāwā, mī itnī baras tōrī chākrī he father-to that, saidsee . father, I so-many years thy service karsawữ, ānkhī tōrā hukūm nōkō mödī: tarū mī āpnā söbtī-baröbar did,and thyorder notwas-broken; stillΙ myfriends-with khuśāl karũ tyā ām-kō bakrā nakō dis. Jēnā tōrā merry should-make by-thee me-to a-goat not was-given. Whom-by thypaisā rāndī-barōbar khāī dārīs · yā tōrā pōryā āyā, ō•kā sangi money harlots-with eating was-thrown thisthyson hissake-for came,

him-by him-to it-was-said, · me with yā turā hamēsa ānkhī sē, yā sab jingī sukh tōrī sē. Mang thisalwaysis, andthis allproperty thine Butis. happiness ānand karwā yā barābar sē; уā bhāi tōrā maryā hōtā, wō joy to-make thisproper is; this thybrother deadwas, hepaltī-kanī jitā bhayā sē; wō hārpī gayā-tā, wō sāmpadyā-sē. again alivebecome is;

lost

ō-na

ō-kā

gone-was,

he

kais.

found-is.

'mōrā

barobar

badī

big

pangat

feast

karīs.'

madest.'

Mang

Then

he

The Bhariās are found in Narsinghpur and Chhindwara. In the latter district, however, the tribe is dying out, and no speakers have been returned at the last Census of 1901. Their number in Narsinghpur was estimated for this Survey at 330. At the last Census of 1901, 563 speakers have been returned.

AUTHORITY-

Scanlan, C.,-Notes on the Bharias. Indian Antiquary, Vol. i, 1872, pp. 159 and f.

The Bhariās have probably once spoken a form of Gōṇḍī. The pronoun $h\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, he, is probably identical with Gōṇḍī $\bar{o}r$, he. Their dialect is, however, now a corrupt Bundēlī.

Of the specimens which follow the first has been forwarded from Narsinghpur and the second from Chhindwara.

[No. 95.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

SEMI-DRAVIDIAN DIALECTS.

SPECIMEN I.

BHARIA.

(NARSINGHPUR.)

Hōrā-mē̃-sē chhāwā rah raĩ. halkā δb apanā dādā-sē Hurak A-man-of two were. Them-in-from the-younger his-own father-to sonsdhan-me morā batā $h\bar{o}$ mã-kã dēdã.' dādā, ghar-kē kaharā, 'arē father, house-of property-in my share may-be me-to give.' Then bãti dīhā. Tanakē dhan \dim dādā-nē apanā pāchhū his-own property having-divided was-given. A-few the-father-by daysafter lē-kẽ garã chhāwā apanā dhan dür uthi, his-own property taking distant country went having-arisen, the-younger son aru gamār-panā-mē sab khōh-dihāy. Jab sab dhan barhā-garā hō and debauchery-in all was-wasted. When all fortune spent-gone was country-in arū ab bhữkhã maranā lagarāy. Tab hōrā kāhữ parī-garā, barā kāl great famine falling-went, and now from-hunger to-die began. Then heharawāhī kar nā lag rā aru hōrā-kā suar charānā rakhārāi. man-of the-office-of-a-ploughman to-do began and swine to-feed himHōrā suar-khānā khānē-sē apanā pēt bharanā lagarā. Hurak lögā kachhū to-fill swine-food eating-by his-own stomach began. Anyman anything dēnā-lagarā. Tab hōrā khab³rīrī bhīrā. Hurak kahanā lagarā, 'daïā, nāhĩ HeThensensiblebecame. to-say began, 'Oh, to-give-began. hemōrā dādā-kā ghanā har wāhā-kā khūb khāī lihan aur bachī-garā aru mõv eating take and to-spare-went and I my father-of many servants-to muchdādā jōrē jāhū bhữkhẵ maranā-lagarā. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}$ maĩ uţhī and will-say, I arising father near will-go from-hunger to-die-am-about. Now Bhagawān-kā karāũ; maĩ sangā pāp dādā, maĩ-nē torē God-of has-been-committed; before sin" 0 father, me-bytheehar wāhā-mã nāhĩ raharā. Apanā kahanē rārā chhāwā tōrā notremained. Thy-own servants-among worthy to-say thyson mã-kã rakhā-lā." Tab thārā-hō hōrā. samājāhē ēk-lā keep." Then he having-arisen equal-considering me one-to Dādā-nē uthi. dādā thānā garā aru apanā garā father near went arising. The-father-by his-own went anddaurī-ke galā-m e achchhā-karī, dēkhi-līhā. Hure dūrā-hūnē āwāchhā runningneck-on Himpitying, he-was-seen. distance-from coming 4 N

jhūmī-gēra aru chūmhī. Tab chhāwā-nē kaharā, 'arē dādā, maĩ-nē falling-went and kissed-him. Then the-son-by it-was-said, 'O father, me-bysangā Bhagwān-kā pāp tōrē karrā; maĩ tōrā chhāwā kahanē rārā theebefore God-of sinwas-done; to-be-called worthy Ithynāhĩ raharā.' Dādā-nā 'asal apanā harawāhā-kā kahdīs. notremained.' The-father-by his-own servants-toit-was-said, `goodurhanā 1ī hō-rī paharā-dã. Ēk mūdī hurak aru āhō hāth paharā-dã clothes taking comeandon-him put. Onering his hand-on putpãw. panahī jöri Chalā sabarā khājīnā aru khuśī manārā. $Y\bar{a}$ shoespair feet-on. Come allshall-eat andmerry shall-be. Thischhāwā janam-bhīrā-hawā, hāth-sē hūne-garā uthī-hōtā phirī milī-gīrā.' has-been-born-again, hands-from lost-gonearising-was again was-found.' Īrā sabi khusī bhīrē. Thenallmerry became.

Barā chhāwā ōhī bakhatā khētā-mē raharā. Lautike ghar-ātī-bakhatā The-elder son thattimefield-inwas. Returning house-coming-time hūnē nãch hallā kudāī sunarã. Har wāhā-mā-sā ēk-lā him-by from-a-distance noise dancing singing was-heard. Servants-in-from one chilādahā hurē pūchhē, 'yā hã?' Hōrā hữ-nē kaharā, 'tōrā halkā kyā calling asked. 'this whatis? Hehim-to said, 'thy younger bhāī āī-garā, aru tōrā dādā hurē asal palti-kērā khuśī-bhīrā khānā brothercome-is, andthyfather hissafe return-of merry-becoming feast dihā.' $Y\bar{a}$ sunī-ke khiśāi-garā, aru ghar nāhī jāhũ. Tab has-given.' This hearing angry-he-became, and house-to notwould-go. Thendādā bāhar nik^alī hurē pōţī lagarā. Chhāwā kaharā. 'arē his father outside coming him to-entreat began. The-son said, '0 dādā, dēkhis, bar³sõ törī naukrī karrã; kabhũ töri kahī nī father, see, years-for thyservice I-did: ever thysayings nottālarā; tũ mã-kã kãũ ēk-lā bhēr-kē chhāwā inām nī dīhā disobeyed; thou me-to ever onesheep-of young-one reward notgavest $h\bar{o}$ sang-sathi sangā majā kararã. Par halkā chhāwā torā thatcompanions withfeast might-make. Butthe-younger sonthydhan-rah rā gamār-panā-mē urā-dihā jaisā paltī-kērā ghar āī-gērā taisa fortune-was riotous-living-in wasted-away as-soon-as returning home khawā-bāchhā." Dādā-nē gōt-karārā, "arē chhāwā, tū thou-gavest-a-feast." The-father-by the-reply-was-made, "O son, thou the-wholebhar mōrā saṅgā rahīs: jō dhan mōrāy dhan sō torāy. $Y\bar{a}$ lifelivedest; which fortune mine-is that fortune me withthine-is.This halkā bhāī tōrā marrā garā, phirī jiyarā; hōrā gamī-garā-hōtā, younger brother thine dead went, again became-alive: hewas-lost. phiri milī-gērā. Ab khūb khuśī bhīrā.' has-been-found. Now very again happybecame.'

[No. 96.]

DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

SEMI-DRAVIDIAN DIALECTS.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT CHHINDWARA.)

BHARIĀ.

Ēk janē kē dō bētā raharō-hōnē. Aur chhōtē bētā-nē dādā-sē One man-of And twosons were. the-younger son-by father-to kahi ki. ' mōrā hisā āchhar sō dē-dahā.' Aur ō-nē apanā it-was-said that. · my share may-be that give-away.' And him-by his-own bãt raharő-hőtā sō dihāy. Aur tanak dinā raharā-hōtay that having-divided was-given. And a-few days fortune was remained apanā dhan-sampat samat-lihāyē aur dūr dēś garā uthāv. then his-own fortune-property together-took and distant country-to went arising. dhan-sampat raharā-hōtam sō raṇḍī-bājī-mē dubāy dihay. Aur jab the-fortune Andwas thatadultery-in squandering gave. And when dubāyē-dīday mulakah barā sab ū akāl padarāy; aur garīb huy-gārāy. all had-been-wasted that country-in great famine fell; and poor he-became. Aur jāy-ke bhalē ādamī thanā milē-gārāy õ-nē, aur 'suwar charāyas-dēwanā near joined-himself and him-by, 'swine And going good manfood-to-give raharā-hōtay suwar jā,' Aur wah khuśi tō chhipalā khāh-hōtē go,' it-was-said. And hepleasedbeing-was swine which husks eating-were khāy-ke-hui. $S\bar{a}$ bhī hōrī khānā milārā hōtay. nahī Aur having-eaten. Thateven food notto-be-got Andthose-very was. dhararāy hō dādā akāl kaharāy, 'ōr mōrē ghanā jab thanē having-got said. father many sense became my nearwhen raharā-hōtay khāthai bhī kachhu bacharay bhī naukar aur aur live eatalso something is-saved alsoservants and andhame bhūkhā maraje-chhe. Ab uthũ tō bāpā thanā maiI the-father hunger-from dying-are. Nowwill-arise thennear we kahũ. "dādā, Bhagawān-chē pāp kararā, kachhū törē pāp kararās; jāhū God-of will-go will-say, "father, sinI-did, somethysinmaî aisā lāyak nē-hữ ki tōrā bēṭā āykhōy, aur maĩ nōkar dhāī Ι servant like Ι so worthy not-am that thy son may-be, and and · now rahữ." Aur utharay huīrāy. Aur jab dūr aur bāp thanā will-live." And And whenfar-off he-arose and father near went.

raharāy-hōtāy dādā dekh^arāv aur kībīrāv aur dorarāy-hotāy or garē-sē he-was the-father and took-pity-on-him and sawranand neck-on chipatī-gēray aur chūmā līrāy. dādā-sē kaharāy-hōtāy, Aur bētā-nē falling-went and kiss took. And the-father-to the-son-by it-was-said, "Bhagawan-chē pāp kararā kachhū torā pāp kararā, aur aisā lāyak aur ' God-of I-didsinsome thy sin I-did, and worthy nē-hữ abki bētā rahatāõ torā mov.' Bāp not-I-am thatthy I-may-remain I.' now sonThe-father kaharā-hōtāv apanē naukaran-sē, 'achhā pōśāk lāwā aur paharāwā. Hāth-mē 'good clothes bring and put-on-him. Hand-on his-own servants-to, mundī paharāwā aur pāw-mē panahī; apan khātīb aur khuśī-më rahajān; putand feet-on shoes; uewill-eat and pleasure-in shall-live; mōy kaharā-hōtāö, mōrā bētā marī gērāy-hōtāy, ab asal-huī saying-became, my sonhaving-died gone-was, now alive-having-become gērāy; wuh gamī-gērāy hōtāy, sō mil-gērāy.' vē Aur khuśi went; lost-gone was, he has-been-found.' Andtheymerry havinggayarāy. become-went.

bētā khēt-mē raharāy-hōtāy. Jab ghar-kanē huīrāy-hōtāy tō gānā The-elder son field-in was. When house-near he-came then singing bajānā sunalī-hāy. O-nē ap^anē nōkar-kō bularāy, 'itā āō, rē, Him-by his-own servants was-called, 'hither come, O, our-own ghar-me kiya gana bajana howa-chhar?' Us-ne kaharay-hotay ki, 'tora bhai house-in why singing music is-going-on?' Him-by it-was-said that, 'thy brother īrā-āchhar aur tōrā dādā khūb khawārāy piyārāy, ki jītē jindgī-me come-is and thy father much caused-to-eat caused-to-drink, that alive possession-in milē-gārāy āv-ke.' Aur wuh gussā hōy-gārāy aur bhitar nahi he-has-been-found having-come.' And he angrybecameandinsideghusaray. Aur bāp bāhar īrāy aur phir samajhārāy. Aur the-father outside came and again entered. Andentreated. kah^arārāy ki, 'ham törī nōkarī bahut baras kar^arān tōrā father-to he-said that, $^{\iota}I$ thy service many years have-done andthyhukm hamë-në kab-hữ nahĩ tāl^arān aur ham-lan ēk mēthē-kā bachchā orders me-by ever notwas-transgressed and one goat-of young-one me-to takād nahī dīhē $_{
m ki}$ khāy-pī-ke dōs milī-ke raharān; even thou-gavest that eating-and-drinking friends withmight-remain; aur torā bētā īrāy, sab sampat raṇḍī-bājī-mē sõ dubāy-dīhāy, and thyson came, heall fortune adultery-in having-squandered-gave, tū khuśi-me kiyā jāphat-kararāy.' Ō-nē kaharāy, 'bētā, hameśā thou pleasure-in to-do invitation-madest.' Him-by it-was-said. 'son, always mōy sangā; aur jō mōrā āy sō tōrā āy. Itani manªśā thou-livedst me with; and which mine is that thine is. So-much desire

rah^arī-hōtī ki chēn-karanā khuśime mōrī aur rahanā, ki mine that merry-should-be-made and happiness-in should-live, was that āvīrāy-hōtāy; gamī-gērā-hōtā, marī-gērā-hōtay, tōrā bhāī phir sō thy brother having-died-gone-was, again became-alive; lost-gone-was, then milī-gērā-hotā.' has-been-found.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES IN THE

En	glish.			Tamil ((Poons)			K	orvī (E	elgau	n).	Kail	cādī (S	holspu	ır).	
1. One			٠,	Ondru, oru, ō	ir			Oṇḍ				Vaṇḍa				_
2. Two				Iraņķu, iru, ī	r			Raṇḍ				Raņḍa	•			
3. Three				Mündru, mü,	mu			Műḍ				Mūņḍa				,
4. Four				Nālu, or nāng	u, nāl			Näl				Näl				,
5. Five				Eindu, eim				Añja				Ãñj				
6. Six				Āŗu, aŗu				Āra				Āra				
7. Seven				Ēŗu, eŗu				Aga				Aga		٠		
8. Eight				Eţţu, eņ				Ațța				Aţţa				
9. Nine				Onbadu .				Õmbidi				Vamdi				
10. Ten .				Pattu .				Patt				Patta				
11. Twenty				Irubada				Raņģrka	ppatt			Merda				
12. Fifty				Eimbadu				Añjarka	ppatt			Pannās				
13. Hundred				Nūru .				Nür				Nūr .				
14. I .	•			Nān .				Nā				Nān, nā				
15. Of me				Ennudeiya				Nana				Nannāda				
16. Mine				Ennadu .				Nanada				Nannāda				
17. We				Nām (inclusi (exclusive).	ive),	nāṅg	gaļ	Nāga				Nång				
18. Of us				Nammudeiya				Nangalad	la			Nangļāda				
19. Our .				Nammuḍeiya				Nangala	da	,		Naṅgḷāda				
20. Thou				Ni .				Nī				Nin, ni	6.			
21. Of thee		•		Unnudeiya				Nina				Ninnāda				
22. Thine				Unnadu .				Ninada				Ninnāda				
23. You				Ningal .				Niga	•			Ning .				
24. Of you				Ungaļudeiya				Ningalad	la			Ningļāda				
25. Your				Ungaludeiya				Ningalad	la			Ninglāda				

	Malay	āļam.			Kana	rese (Be	lgaum).		Ku	ru <u>kh</u> (1	Palama	n).	
Oru				-	Ondu (n	.), obb	na (mas	c. §.	Oṇṭā, m	asc. 01	t		
Raṇḍu	•	•			Eradu (n	.), ibba	ru (ma	sc. &	Eṇḍ, ma	sc. & f	em. ir	b	
Münnu		. `			Mūru (n.)), mūva	ru (mas	sc. §-	Mũṇḍ, n	asc. §	r fem.	nub	
Nālu					Nälku (n. fem.)), nālva	aru (ma	sc. &	Nākh, m	asc. &	fem.	naib	
Añju					Eidu (n.)), eivar	u (masc	. s	Pañchē		•		
Āŗu					Āru				Chhau (soyē)			
Yēŗu			•		Ēļu				Sattē				
Yettu					Eņţu				Äţh	•			
Onbadu					Ombhatt	u.			Nau				
Pattu					Hattu				Dassē				
Irupadu	ı .		•.		Ippattu				Kūrī				
Ambadı	u.				Aivattu				Pachās				
Nūŗa					Nūru				Oṇḍ sai				
Ñān					Nānu				Ēn				
Enre		٠.			Nanna				Enhai			٠	
Engedu					Nannadu				Enhai				
Ñaṅṅaḷ,	, nām				Nāvu				Ēm (exc	lusive) ; nā:	ní (in	cl.
Nannal	uḍe, n	ammu	ıḍe		Namma				Emhai				
Ñaṅṅaļ	uḍe, n	ammt	ıġe		Namma				Emhai				
Ni					Nīnu				Nin				
Ninge					Ninua				Ninhai				
Ningedu	a .				Ninnadu				Ninhai				
Ninnaļ					Nivu				Nïm				
Ninna(l	u)de				Nimma				Nimhai				
X	la)de				Nimma				Nimhai				

M	alto.				Kui (Kh	ondr	nals).	G	gûģi (Mand	lla).	
Ort, ēṇḍ-ond				Ro(ṇḍ	i), ēka			Uņģī				
Iwr, ēṇḍ-is				Ri(ṇḍ	i), dui			Raṇḍ				
Tin .				Muñji	, tini			Műņḍ	•			
Chār .				Nālgi,	sāri			Nälűng				
Pach .				Singi,	pãsu			Saiyūng		•		
Chō .				Sajgi,	sa.			Sārūng				٠.
Sāt .				Odgi,	sātu			Yērūng				
Aţ .			•	Àţu	•			Āth (oth	er di	stric	ts arm	ur)
Nō .			•	Na				Nau (oth	er di	istric	ts unn	nāk)
Das .			•	Daśu				Das or p	ad	•		
Kōṛy-ond			•	Kaḍē		•		Bīs				
Aŗai kōŗi				Ri kaḍ	i daśu			Pachās	•			
Pach köri				Päsu k	adi			Saikrā (d	ther	dist	ricts n	űr)
Ēn .	•			Ānu			٠	Nannā		٠		•
Èṅg-ki <u>th</u>			•	Nãĭ			•	Nāvā	•			
Eṅg-ki <u>th</u>		•	•	Nāndē	٠.		٠	Nāvā			٠	
Em (exclusive clusive).), n	ām	(in-	Āmu	•		٠	Mammāţ āmōţ).	(oti	her	distr	icts
Em-ki <u>th</u>			•	Māĭ	•	•	·	Māvā			•	•
Em-ki <u>th</u>		•		Māndē ·			•	Māvā	٠,		•	
Nin .		•		Inu	•			Immā			•	
Ning-ki <u>th</u>		•		Niĭ	•		٠	Nivā				
Ning-ki <u>th</u>	•		-	Nindē	٠			Nīvā				
Nim .			-	Iru	•			Immāţ				
Nim-ki <u>th</u>			-	Miĭ				Mīvā		•	•	
Nim-ki <u>th</u>	•	•	-	Mindē				Mīvā			•	

LANGUAGES OF THE DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

	Telu	ıgu.		I	Brābūi	(Kalat)		English.
Okați			_	Asiţ				1. One.
Reņģu			•	Iraț				2. Two.
Mūḍu				Musiț				3. Three,
Nālugu				Chār		• -		4. Four.
Ayidu				Pañ				5. Five.
Āru			•	Shash				6. Six.
Yēḍu				Haft				7. Seven.
Yenimidi				Hash				8. Eight.
Tommidi				Noh				9. Nine.
Padi				Dah				10. Ten.
Iruvai	• .			Bist				11. Twenty.
Yābhai				Pañjāh				12. Fifty.
Nūru				Şad				13. Hundred.
Nēnu				î.				14. I.
Nā .				Kanā				15. Of me.
Nādi			•	Kanā			·	16. Mine.
Mēmu (e	dresse			Nan				17. We.
(inclusi Mā, man				Nanā				18. Of us.
Mādi, ma	anadi		•	Nanā				19. Our.
Nīvu			•	Nī .				20. Thou.
Ni .				Nā.			•	21. Of thee.
Nīdi				Nā.				22. Thine.
Miru				Num				23. You.
Mī.				Numā				24. Of you.
Midi				Numā				25. Your.

	En	glish.			Tamil (Poona)		К	orvī (B	elgaum	i).	Ка	ikāḍī (Sholap	ur).	
	26. He .				Avan .	•		Ãva				. Āu		•		
	27. Of him				Avanudeiya			Ävan				. Avanād	B.			
	28. His .				Avanudeiya			Ãvan	ı.		•	. Avanād	a.			
	29. They				Avargal .			Avga, A	iga			. Aung				
	30. Of them				Avargaļudeiy	a .		Agal	•		•	. Aunglad	l			
	31. Their	•			Avargaļudeiy	ъ.		Agal	٠,	٠.	•	. Āungļād	l	•		
	32. Hand	•	•		Kei .			Kai				. Kai		•		
	33. Foot	•	•		Pādam .	÷	:	Kāl		•	•	. Kāl		•		0
	34. Nose	•	•		Mūkku .	٠		Můka				. Mūka	•	•	٠	
	35. Eye	•	٠		Каџа .	٠		Khaṇṇa	• .	•	•	. Kanna			•	
	36. Mouth	•	٠		Vāyi .	•		Vāyi	٠.	٠.		. Vāi	•			
	37 Tooth		٠		Pallu .			Pell	٠			Pella				1
	38. Ear .	•			Kādu .			Śavi				. Svai			•	
	39. Hair				Mayir .	•	٠.	Magara	٠.	٠.	٠	. Magri			٠	
	40. Head				Talei .			Teli	٠.	•	٠	. Thālī, ta	lkāi	٠	٠	
	41. Tongue	•	٠	-	Nākku .		•	Nålgi	•	٠	•	. Nāk	•	٠	٠	1
	42. Belly			•	Vayaru .			Varag	•	•	٠	. Vārga	• .	•	٠	
	43. Back			•	Mudugu			Benn		•	•	. Benna	٠	•	٠	
	44. Iron	٠	•	-	Irumbu .		•	Khabbin			•	. Lōkaṇḍa	٠.	•		3
	45. Gold	•	٠		Pon .			Bangar	•	٠	•	. Bangāra		•		
	46. Silver	٠	٠	•	Veļļi .	•	•	Valli		• .	•	. <u>Ts</u> åndī	•	•	٠	
	47. Father	•	•		Tagappanār	•		Āvu	•	٠	٠	. Gāv	•	•		
	48. Mother	•	٠	•	Tāyār .			Ãmma _.	•	•	•	. Gāmma			,	
	49. Brother		•	•	(younger).	der),	tambi	(young		٠.	teml		•	٠	٠	
10 VI	50. Sister	٠	•	•	Akkāļ (elder) (younger).	, tan	gachchi	. (young	ger).	r),	tang		•	٠		
	51. Man	*	•	•	Manidan	•	•	Manusu	•	• .		. Urāpāi	• .	•	٠	
	52. Woman	•	•	•	Stirī .		•	Vārāti	٠.	٠.	•	Urti	٠.	٠.	٠	

	Malayi	iļam.			Kan	arese (Belgau	m).		Kuru <u>ki</u>	(Palama	1).	
Avan				-	Avanu					Ãs .			
Avange					Avana					Ās-gahi			
Avange			•	-	Avana					Ăs-gahi .			
Avar	•				Avaru	•				Ār .			
Avarude					Avara					Ãr-gahi .			
Avarudo					Avara	•				Ār-gahi .	•		
Kai					Kei		÷			Khekkhā	•	•	-
Kāl				-	Pāda or	kālu		٠	•	Khed .		•	
Mükku					Mügu		•		•	Műi .	٠	•	
Kaṇṇu			•		Kaṇṇu			٠		Khann .	•	٠	
Vāyi				٠	Bāyi					Bai .			
Pallu		•			Hallu	:				Pall .		•	
Chevi	•	•	•		Kivi					<u>Kh</u> ebdā	•		-
Talamu	ļi, rōm	am			Kūdalu					Chuțți .		•	
Tala					Tale		٠	•		Kukk .			
Nāva	٠				Nälige		٠			Tat <u>kh</u> ā .	٠		
Vayara		÷	٠		Hoțțe	٠.				Kūl .			
Muduga		•	•		Bennu	٠		٠		Mēd .	٠	•	
Irimba		•			Kabbina	٠.	٠	٠		Pannā .	•	•	
Pon	• .	٠.			Bhangā	ra	•			Sonā .	•	•	
Velli	•				Belli	•	٠			Rupā .	•	•	
Achchh	an	•			Tande	•	٠	٠		Bābā, emb	as (my f	ather)	
Amma		٠	•		Tāyi	•		•		Ayō, iṅgyō	(my mo	ther)	
Sahōda	ran ; a	nņan	(elder	r) .	Aṇṇa (young	(eld ger).	ler),	tan	nma	Bhāi .	•	•	
Penna!	; akk	a (eld	ler)		Akka (youn	(6le ger).	der),	ta	angi	Iṅgṛī (my	sister)	•	
Āļ, pur	ushan				Manusl	ıya	•				•	٠	
Strī	•		٠	•	Hengas	u.				Ālī	•.	٠	
1					·						D E		_

Mal	to.			к	ui (Kh	ondma	ls).		G	g ū ģī (Mandla	a).	
Āh .				Ēbāñju	, (ēāñ	ju)			Ŏr.				
Aheki <u>th</u> .				Tāĭ					Ōnā				
Aheki <u>th</u> .				Tāndē					Önä				
Å-saber or aw	er			Ēbāru,	(ēāru,	etc.)			Õrk				
Ā-saber-ki <u>th</u>				Ēbārdi					Ōrā, ōrk	nā			
Å-saber-ki <u>th</u>				Ēbārdi					Ōrā, ōrk	nä			
Tetu <u>th</u> .				Kāgu,	kāju				Kai				
Qed-chapţa <u>th</u> foot).	(sole	of	the	Pātkā					Kāl				
Musoth .				Munge	li				Mussōr				
Qanu <u>th</u> .				Kānu					Kan				
Toro <u>th</u> .				Sudā					Ţuḍḍi				
Palu <u>th</u> .				Pālkā		٠.			Pal				
Qe <u>th</u> wu <u>th</u>				Kriu					Kavī				
Tali <u>th</u> .				Lēñjā					Chuţţī				
Quku <u>th</u> .				Tlāu		٠.			Tallā				
Tarteth .				Bāṅgōsi					Vañjēr				
Puṛa <u>th</u> .				Ţuţu					Pīr		10		
Qoqe <u>th</u> .				Bēta					Murchul				
Loha <u>th</u>				Luhā					Kachchi				
Sona <u>th</u> .	• •			Sunā					Sunnö				
Chandi <u>th</u>				Dārbā,	rupā				Chāndī				
Abba				Ābā, tā	ñji				Dādāl				
Аууа .				Iyā	•				Dāī				
Baya .				Dādā (youn	(eld ger).	ler),	tām	ēsā	Tammur				
Bāyi <u>th</u> .				Bāi (eld		āṅgi (young	er)	Dīdī				
Murse .				Lōku, n	mēhē	ñju		٠.	Mārsāl				
Peli <u>th</u> .				Āsā					Ār				
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	Те	lugu.		Bråh	ūī (Kal	at)		English.
Vāḍu				Ē, or ō .				26. He.
Vāni				Ē-nā, or ō-nā	٠.			27. Of him.
Vänidi		,		Ē-nā, or ō-nā	i .			28, His.
Vāru, vā	ņģlu			Efk, or ofk				29. They.
Vāri, vāņ	dla			Ēftā, or ōftā				30. Of them.
Vāridi, v	ăņḍl	adi	. •	Ēftā, or ōftā				31, Their.
Cheyyi				Dū				32. Hand.
Kālu, pā	dam	u.		Nat .				33. Foot.
Mukku				Bāmus .			ا.	34. Nose.
Kannu				Khan .				35. Eye.
Nōru				Bā				36. Mouth.
Pallu				Dandān .				37. Tooth.
Chevi				Khaf .				38. Ear.
Veņţruk	2.	i.		Puzhah .				39. Hair.
Tala				ţum .				40. Head.
Nāluka				Doi .				41. Tongue.
Kadupu				Piḍ, or phiḍ				42. Belly.
Bennu				Bhaj .				43. Back.
Inumu				Āhin .		,		44. Iron.
Bangāra	mu			Khīsun .				45. Gold.
Veņģi				Zar .	•			46. Silver.
Taṇḍri				Bāvah .				47. Father.
Talli				Lummah				48. Mother.
Tammuḍ	u, aı	na		Īlum .				49. Brother.
Chelle, a	kka			Īŗ				50. Sister.
Manishi				Bandag <u>h</u>				51. Man.
Āḍadi				Za'ifah .				52. Woman

	Eng	lish.		Tamil (Poons	F	Korvī (Belgaum).					Kaikāḍī (Sholapur).				
53	Wife			Peṇḍadi .		. Khuļiši	i				Kuļiśi .				
54.	Child		٠.	Piļļai	×	Guṇṭ			v		Guņţi .				
55	. Son			Kumāra <u>n</u> .		Mavu					Gōva .				
56	Daughter	r.	٠.	Kumārtti, magaļ		Maga					Pengir .				
57	. Slave	,		Adimei .		Gulām									
58	. Cultivato	or.		Payiridugiravan		. Vallāgu	ι.				Kvāllayā		•		
59	. Shepher	d	٠	ldeiya <u>n,</u> mēyppa <u>n</u>		. Kurbād			•		Dhangarā	1.	•		
60	. God	٠		Kadavul .		Devar					Dēvri .				
61	Devil			Piśāśu		Dăvū	•				Pei .				
62	. Sun		•	Śūriyan		Poda		. •			Phōd .				
63	Moon			Chandiran .		. Chandr	ām				Nyalav .				
64	. Star			Nachchhattiram		Chukyā	ing				Chukkyā				
65	. Fire		. •	Neruppu .		Nerpa					Nyarp .				
66	. Water			Taṇṇĩr .		Tenni					Tenni .				
67	. House			Viḍu		, Ūḍa					Ūţ.				
68	Horse			Kudirei		Kudri					Khudri .				
69.	Cow			Paśu		Ākļ	• .				Ākaļ .				
70	Dog			Nāy		Khavāl					Nāy .				
71.	Cat		•	Pāṇei	•	Püni					Phāni .				
72	Cock			Śēval		. Savk	٠				Kōgi .				
73	Duck			Peņdārā		. Padaka					Badak .				
74	. Ass .			Kagudei		Kadi			:		Khedi .				
75	. Camel			Otței .		. Vaņți			٠		Vāņţi .				
76	. Bird			Paravei		Hakki									
77	Go ,		•	Pō		Hō					Но .				
7 8,	Eat .	•		Tinnu		Tinnu					Tinna .				
79.	Sit .			Uţkāru		Ukkā					Kvāni .				

Mala	yāļam.			Kan	arese	Belgau	m).		K	170 <u>kh</u> (Palama	u).	
Bhāryya .				Heṇḍati					Mukkā				
Kuṭṭi .				Kūsu					Khadd				
Magan .				Maga					Endas (my son	ı)		
Magal .				Magalu					Endā (n	ıy dau	ghter)		
Cheruman				Dāsa			٠,		Savkī, jā	<u>kh</u>			
Krishīvalan				Säguvaļi	igāra				Chāsā	•			
Āṭṭugāran				Kuruba					Gaḍrā		•	•	
Deivam .	•	•		Dēvaru			•		Dharmē		٠	•	
Piśācha .				Devva		٠	•		Nāḍ				
Sūryan .		•		Sūrya or	hott	u			Biri		•		
Chandran		•		Chandra	•	•			Chandō			•	
Nakshatram	•	•		Chikke		٠			Binkō				
Ti	•			Benki	•		•	٠	Chich	•		٠	
Veļļam .		•		Nīru	•		•		Amm	•	•	•	
Kuḍi .				Mane					Eŗpā				
Kudira .		•		Kudure			•		Ghōṛō				
Ā.,	•			Ākaļu		٠,			Gāy	•			
Nāy .				Nāyi					Allā				
Püchcha		i.		Bekku			•		Ber <u>kh</u> ā	:	v	٠	
Pūvangōri	•			Huñja	•				Kokrō				
Bāttu .				Bātukōļi			•		Gere		•		
Karuda .	•	•		Katte		•			Gadhā				
Oţţagam		٠		Oṇṭe	•				Uņţ	1	•	•	
Pakshi .	•			Hakki					Oŗā				
Pō(ga) .				Hōgu'	•		•		Kalā				
Tinnuga				Tinnu	•	•			Mōkhā				
Iri .	•			Kūḍru		•			Okkā	•	•		
			- 1								- T	655	-1

	Mali	to.			к	ui (Kb	ondma	ls).		G	lōņķī (Mandla).	
ра́пі <u>th</u> .				-	Kḍuā					Māyjū				
Maqeh .					Miḍā	•				Chhavvi	i			
Engadeh					Mriēñju			. •		Marri				
Engadi <u>th</u>					Mrāu					Miār				
Golām .					Āliā					Gulām				
					Chāsāgā	ţāñju				Kisān				
Goaleh .					Gāuḍēñ	ju				Garriyāl				
Gosayi <u>th</u>					Roţāpēn	ıu		·		Bhagvār	1			
Buteth .					Osurēñj	u				Śaitān		•		
Bēru <u>th</u> .					Bēlāpēn	u	•			Suryāl		•		
Bilpu <u>th</u> .		•			 Dāñjupē	inu				Chandāl				
Biņḍke <u>th</u>					Sukā	٠				Juniyā			·	
Chichu <u>th</u>				-	Nāni					Kis				
Amu <u>th</u> .					Sirō, kāl	čēri				Yēr				
Aḍa <u>th</u> .					Iḍu					Rōn				
Goro <u>th</u> .		•	•		Gōḍā					Kōŗā	٠	•		
Ōyu <u>th</u> .			٠		Koḍi					Ţālī				
Ale <u>th</u> .			÷		Nākuḍi					Nai				
Berge <u>th</u>	•	•			Mēő					Bilāl				
Qēr-laṅga <u>tl</u>	<u>h</u>	•	•		Ţādrā ko	ju				Gugōri	•			
Batake <u>th</u>					Honso					Badak				
Gada-goro <u>t</u>	<u>h</u>	•			Goḍo	٠				Gadhāl				
Uțe <u>th</u> .		•			Ōţo				•	Ūņţ				
Puju <u>th</u> .					Poță					Piţţe				
Kāla .					Sālmu	•				Han				
Lapet, moq	et	•			Tinmu					Tin				
Oka .					Kokmu					Uddā		•		

Te	lugu.		1	Brāhūī	(Kalat)	•		English.
Peņḍlāmu			Arvat					53. Wife.
Pilla .			Chúchah	٠.				54. Child.
Kumāruḍu, k	duku		Mār					55. Son.
Kumärte .			Masir					56. Daughter.
Naukaru			Μē.					57. Slave.
Kāpu .			Zamindā	r, baz	g <u>h</u> ar			58. Cultivator.
Gollavāḍu			Shoman					59. Shepherd.
Dēvudu .			<u>Kh</u> udā					60. God.
Dayyamu		•.	Shaitan					61. Devil.
Sūryuḍu .			Dē					62. Sun.
Chandrudu			Tūbē					63. Moon.
Tsukka .			Istār					64. Star.
Aggi, agni			<u>Khākh</u> ar					65. Fire.
Niļļu .			Dir					66. Water.
Illu .			Urā					67. House.
Gurramu.			Hullī					68. Horse.
Āvu .		. ,	Pagi					69. Cow.
Kukka .			Kuchak					70. Dog
Pilli .			Pishī					71. Cat.
Pundzu .			Bāṅgō					72. Cock.
Badaku .	. ,		Hañj	•				73. Duck.
Gāḍide .			Bish			,		74. Ass.
Loțțipițța			Huch				-	75. Camel.
Pakshi .			Chuk					76. Bird.
Pō .			Hin					77. Go.
Tinu .			Kun					78. Eat,
Kūr <u>ts</u> uņḍu			Tülțh			,		79. Sit.

	Eng	glish.			т	Korvī (Belgaum).					Kaikāḍī (Sholapur).								
80.	Come				Vā				•	Vā				-	Vā				
81.	Beat				Aḍi					Adi					Iḍḍa				
82.	Stand	ŀ			Nillu		٠.			Yeddnil					Nil				
83.	Die				Śāvu					Sāg					Sāg .	•			
84.	Give				Koḍu					Kuḍa					Tâ .				
85.	Run				Ōḍu					Ōḍa					Ōḍa	:	•		
86.	Up		•		Mēlē			·		Mēnk, m	ěni	٠.	•		Mini				
87.	Near				Arugē					Sane, jy	iți				Kiţţa	•			
88.	Down			•	Kīŗē					Dīka			•		Dhīk				
89.	Far				Tūram			•		Dür			•		Thür				3
90	Before				Mun					Munni					Païli .				
91.	Behind				Pigpu					Parka					Phārgi				
92,	Who				Yār					Yār .					Yāu				
93	. What				Enna					Enta, yā	inda				Midā .				
94	. Why		٠.		Ēņ					Yātka					Mitka		• .		
95	. And				Um					Matt					Ān				
96.	But				Āņāl					Ánāka					Pan				
97.	If .	2			Âl (a v	rbal	suffix)			Ka			٠.						
98	Yes				Åm			0.5		Hāma		•			Hā				
99	. No .		٠		Illei	٠.				Illa					Illa				
100	. Alas				Eiyō		٠.	•		Аууб					īgad-ig	ad			
101	. A father	٠.			Oru tag	gappa	ņār			Ortā āv	u				Gāv			· ·	
102	. Of a fat	her			Oru tag	appa	nārude	iya		Ortū āv	an				Gāunād				
103	. To a fat	her			Oru tag	appa	nārukk	u		Ortü äv	ank				Gäunk				
104	. From a	father			Oru tag	gappa	nārida	miruı	ıda	Ortū āv	uņḍ				Gāun k	iţţuņ	ļā		
105	. Two fat	hers			Iraṇḍu	taga	ppa <u>n</u> ārg	gaļ		Raņģēr	āvan	āga			Raņḍ g	āv.			
106	. Fathers		1		Tagapp	anār	zal			Āvanāg	a				Gã▼				

Malayāļam.		Kauarese (Belgas	ım).	Kuru <u>kh</u> (Palamau).				
Variga, vā · · ·		Bā		Barā				
Adi		Badi		Lau'ā				
Nillu, nil		Nillu		lj'ā				
Chāga		Sāyu		Khē'ā				
Kodu, tā		Kodu		Chi'ā				
Ŏḍuga		Ōḍu		Bongā				
Mēl		Mēle		Mẽyā				
Adukke		Hattara		Heddē				
Kir		Kelage		Kiyā				
Dūra		Dūra		Gechhā				
Munbe		Munde		Mundbhārē				
Pinnālē		Hinde		Khōkhā				
Ā1		Yāru		Nē				
Endu		Enu		Endrā				
Endukoņļu, endinnu		Yāke		Enderge				
Um		Mattu		Aur, dară				
Engilum	٠	Ādare .		Mudā				
Engil		Re (a suffix) .		Yadi ,				
Ade		Haudu or ahudu		Hă, ha'i				
Illa		Illa or alla .		Mal'ā				
Kashtam		Аууо	• :	Hairē				
Achchhan		Obba tandeyu .		Orot bābā				
Achchhange		Obba tandeya .		Orot bābas-gahi				
Achchhannu		Obba tandege .		Orot bābas-gē				
Achehhanilninnu .		Obba tandeyinda		Orot bābas-gustī				
Raṇḍu achchbanmār.		Ibbaru tandegaļu		Eṇḍ bābar				
Achchhanmār	٠	Tandegaļu .		Bābar				
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Ма	lto.		Kui (Kho	ondmals)	Göṇḍī (Mandla).					
Bara .			Bāmu .		 Varā					
Baja .			Sāhāmu, uhu	nu	 Jim	·.				
Ila .			Nilmu .		 Nillā					
Kecha .			Sāmu .		 Sāyā			٠		
Chiya .			Simu .	•	 Tarā, sī	n .		•		
Bonga .			Piñjāmu .		 Vittā					
Meche .			Miő .		 Parrō	•		•		
Aṭge, bahano			Sodi .		 Pērin, jē	re	•	•		
Pisti .		•	Sāiţi .		 Sirī	•		•		
Geche .			Durā .		 Lakk		•	•		
Agdu		•	Muhutā .	•	 Munne	÷		•		
Qōq .			Bētoți .	•	 Pijjā					
Nēreh .			Umbãē .		 Bor, fen	. bad				
Indru .			Ināri, inā	•	 Bad, bāl	, bārāi	'n			
Indrik .			Inaki [•	 Bārī					
Ado .			Oţē .	•	 Ani	•		•		
Je .			Gē .		Pē		•			
Jadi .			Ēkā (a suffix)		 Jō .					
ð 8 °.	•		A		 Ingē, ing	ζŌ	•	•		
Mala .			$\hat{A}\bar{e}, sid\bar{e}$.		 Hille		•			
Aya re, ene ay	a re		Oho .		 Hāy	•				
Abba			Ro ābā .		 Dādāl					
Abbaki .			Ro ābāri		 Dādānā					
Abba bahak			Roābārki		 Dādān					
Atta bahante			Ābā-bāhā - ṭākā	6	 Dādātāl					
wr abbar			Ri ābā .		 Raṇḍ dā	dālōr				
bba saber		٠.	Ābā gulē		Dādālōr					

	Telu	gu.			В	srāhūī (Kala	t).		English.
Rā .					Bar	•	•	•	-	80. Come.
Koţţu .	7				<u>Kh</u> alth					81. Beat.
Nil <u>ts</u> uṇḍu					Salah					82. Stand.
<u>Ts</u> āvu .					Kah					83. Die.
Iyyi .		•			Ēti, ēte					84. Give.
Uruku .					Dūding					85. Run.
Midiki .					Burza				-	86. Up.
Daggira .	10	•			<u>Kh</u> uṛk					87. Near.
Kindiki .			Ę		Shēf		٠			88. Down.
Dūramu .	101				Murr					89. Far.
Mundața					Mōne-ṭī,	mön-	ån			90. Before.
Venuka .			•		Pade-ți,	padār	1.			91. Behind.
Yevadu .			•		Dēr					92. Who.
Yēmi .		•			Ant		•	٠		93. What.
Yenduku					Antae					94. Why.
Ińka .					Ō.	•		٠	•	95. And.
Gāni .					Magar					96. But.
-të (added participl	to th	s pas	t verb	al	Agar		٠			97. If.
Avunu .					Нō.	•				98. Yes.
Lēdu .	es .		•		Nah āhā	i .	•			99. No.
Аууо .	•				Hai hai	armā	n.			16C. Alas.
Taṇḍri .	· S · S				Bāvah			•		101. A father.
Taṇḍri .	•				Bāvah-r	ıā				102. Of a father.
Taṇḍri-ki		•			Bāva-e					103. To a father.
Taṇḍri-da	ggiri	nuño	hi		Bāvag <u>h</u>	-ān				104. From a father.
Iddaru ta	ņģru-	lu			Trā bāva	h			•	105. Two fathers.
Taṇḍru-lu	L	•	•		Bāvagh	āk	•	٠	•	106. Fathers.

English.	Tamil (Poona).	Korvi (Belgaum).	Kaikāḍī (Sholapur).
107. Of fathers .	. Tagappaṇārgaļuḍeiya	. Āvanāgļ	Gāvaṅgļād
108. To fathers .	. Tagappa <u>n</u> ärgalukku	Āvanāgļka	Gāvangļak
109. From fathers .	. Tagappaṇārgaļiḍattilirindu	Āvanāgļvuņḍ	Gāvangļa-kiṭṭuṇḍā
110. A daughter .	Oru kumārtti	Ort maga	Penger .
111. Of a daughter .	. Oru kumārttiyinuḍeiya	Ort magalda	Pengeryad
112. To a daughter .	Oru kumārttikku .	Ort magalka	Pengerk
113. From a daughter	Oru kumārttiyiḍamirundu	Ort magaluņd	Penger-kiṭṭuṇḍa
114. Two daughters.	. Iraņdu kumārttigaļ .	. Raņdēr heņa makk	Raṇḍa peṅger
115. Daughters .	. Kumārttigaļ	Hena makk	Penger
116. Of daughters .	. Kumārttigaļudeiya .	. Hena makkļa	Pengeryāngļād
117. To daughters .	. Kumārttigaļukku	Hena makkika	Pengeryāngļak .
118. From daughters.	. Kumārttigaļidamirundu	Heņa makkļvuņd	Penger-kiţţuṇḍā .
19. A good man .	. Nallavan	Ortu chhalū manusu .	Nalla urāpāy
20. Of a good man .	. Nallavan	Ortu chhalū manusūna .	Nalla urāpnād .
21. To a good man .	. Nallavanukku	Ortu chhalū manusūnk .	Nalla urāpunk .
22. From a good man	. Nallavanidamirundu .	Ortu chhalū manusūņḍ .	Nalla urāpun-kiţţuṇḍā
23. Two good men .	. Irandu nalla manidargal	Raņģēr chhalū manasara .	Raṇḍa nallayā urāyā
24. Good men .	. Nalla manidargal	Chhalīt manasara	Nallayā urāyā .
25. Of good men .	. Nalla manidargaļudeiya .	Chhalū manasūra	Nalla urāpunāṅgļād .
26. To good men .	. Nalla manidargalukku	Chhalū manasūrka	Nalla.urāpungļak .
27. From good men .	Nalla manidargaļidan irundu	Chbalū manasūruņḍa	Nalla urāpāsal-kiţţuṇḍā
28. A good woman .	. Nallaval	Orti chhalū vārāti	Nallād urtī.
29. A bad boy .	. Ketta peiyan	Ortu katt āmļ-gaņți.	Vāit igarū
30. Good women .	Nalla istirigal	Chhalū vārātyanga	Nallayā urtyā
31. A bad girl .	Oru ketta penpillai	Orti katt pangēr-guņți .	Vāit gubli
2. Good	Nalla	Chhalū	Naliād
3. Better	Avanukku nalla (better than he).	Kitā chhalū	·

Malayāļam.	Kanarese (Belgaum).		Kuru <u>kh</u> (Palamau).
Achchhanmärude	Tandegaļa		Bābar-gahi
Achchhanmärkku	Tandegalige		Bābar-gē
Achchhenmärilninna.	Tandegalinda		Bābar-gustī
Magal	Obba magalu		Orot endā
Magalude	Obba magala		Orot endā-gahi
Magalkku	Obba magalige .		Orot endā-gē
Magalilninna	Obba magalinda .		Orot endā-gustī
Randu magalugal	Ibbaru heṇṇu makkaļu		Eṇḍ eṅdā
Magalugal	Heṇṇu makkaļu .		Endā-baggar
Magalugalude	Heṇṇu makkaļa .		Endā-baggar-gahi
Magalugalkku	Heṇṇu makkalige .		Eńdā-baggar-gē
Magalugalilninna	Heṇṇu makkaḷinda .		Endā-baggar-gustī
Oru nalla manushyan	Obba oļļē manushyanu		Orot bēs ālas
Nalla manushange .	Obba oļļē manushyana		Orot bēs ālas-gahi
Nalla manushyannu .	Obba ollē manushyanige		Orot bēs ālas•gē
Nalla manushyanil-ninna	Obba oļļē manushyaninda	٠.	Orot bēs ālas-gustī
Raṇḍu nalla manushyar	Ibbaru oļļē manushyaru		Eņģotā bēs ālar
Nalla manushyar .	Ollē manushyaru .		Bēs ālar
Nalla manushyaruḍe	Oļļē manushyara .		Bēs ālar-gahi
Nalla manusharkku	Oļļē manushyarige .		Bēs ālar-gē
Nalla manushyarilninna	Oļļē manushyarinda		Bēs ālar-gustī
Nallaval	Obba oļļē hengasu .		Orot bēs ālī
Chitta anguțți	Obba keṭṭa huḍuga .		Orot luchcha kukkos
Nalla strigal	Ollē hengasaru .		Bēsālīr
Chītta penguṭṭi .	Obba keṭṭa huḍigi .		Luchcha kuko'e
Nalladu	Chalō		Bās
Adhikam nalladu .	. Hechchu chalō		Ādintī bēs
		_	1

Malto.			Kui (Khondm	als).	_	Göṇḍī (Mand	la).	
Abba saber-ki		•	Ābārdi			Dādālōrnā .		
Abba sabar-bahak			Ābārki			Dādālōrun, dādālō	rkun	٠.
Abba saberinte.			Ābār-bāhā-ṭākā			Dādālōr-sē .		
Pel maqo <u>th</u> .			Mrāu roņģe .			Miyar		
Pel maqoki .			Mrāundi .			Miyārtā .		
Pel maqo bahak			Mrāuki			Miyān, miyārtun		
Pel maqo bahante			Mrāuni bāhā-ṭākā			Miyārtāl .		
Iwr engader .	•		Ri mrāu			Raṇḍ miyāhk		
Engad bagter .	٠		Mrāuskā .			Miyāhk	٠.	
Engad bagterki			Mrāuskāndi .			Miyāhknā .		
Engad bagteri baha	k.		Mrāuskāniki .			Miyāhkun .		
Engad bagteri baha	nte		Mrāuskāni bāhāṭāk	ñ.		Miyāhknāl .		
Ort ēru maleh .			Ro nēgi lōku .			Bhalō māṛsāl .		
Ort ēŗu maleki			Ro nēgi lōkuri			Bhalō māṛsānā		
Ort ēru mal bahak			Ro nēgi lōkuki.			Bhalo mārsān .		
Ort ēŗu mal bahant	е		Ro nēgi lōku bāhā-ṭ	ākā		Bhalō māṛsānāl		
Iwr ēru maler			Ri nēgi lōku .			Raņḍ bhalō māṛsālk		
Ēru maler .			Gulē nēgi lōku			Bhalo mārsālk		
Ēŗu malerki .			Gulē nēgi lōkurdi			Bhalō māṛsālknā		
Ēŗu maleri bahak			Gulē nēgi lōkurki			Bhalō māṛsālkun		
Ēŗu maleri bahante			Gulē nēgi lōku bāhā	i-ṭākā		Bhalō māṛsālknāl		
Ort ēŗu peli <u>th</u>			Ro nēgi āsāmāĭ			Bhalō ār .		-
Ort bāna maqeh		-	Ro ŗoi mnēhē-miḍā			Burō pēṛgāl .		
Ēŗu peler .	•		Nēgi āsāmāĭskā			Bhalō āsk .		
Ort bāna maqi <u>th</u>			Ro ŗoi āsā-miḍā			Burō pēṛgī .		
Ēŗu		.	Nēgi; nēgāñju; nēgi	iri	-	Bēs, bhalō .		
A <u>th</u> ente ēru <u>th</u>					1	Nakkā bēs .		
D.F. cc4					-			

Telugu.	Brāhūī (Kalat).	English,
Tandru-la	Bāvaghātā	. 107. Of fathers.
Taṇḍru-la-ku	Bāvag <u>h</u> āte	. 108. To fathers.
Taṇḍru-la-daggiri-nuñchi .	Bāvaghātiān	. 109. From fathers.
Kumārte	Masir-as	. 110. A daughter.
Kumārte	Masiṛ-nā	. 111. Of a daughter.
Kumārte-ku	Masir-e	. 112. To a daughter.
Kumārte-daggiri-nuñchi .	Masir-ān	. 113. From a daughter.
Iddaru kumārte-lu	Irā masir	. 114. Two daughters.
Kumārte-lu	Masink	. 115. Daughters.
Kumārte-la	Masintā	. 116. Of daughters.
Kumārte-la-ku	Masinte	. 117. To daughters.
Kumārte-la-daggiri-nuũchi	Masintiān	. 118. From daughters.
Mañchivādu	Jomānō bandagh-as .	. 119. A good man.
Mañchivāni	Jomānaṅgā bandag <u>h</u> -nā	. 120. Of a good man.
Mañchivāni-ki	Jomänangā bandaghe	. 121. To a good man.
Mañchivāni-daggiri-nuñchi	Jomānaṅgā bandaghān	. 122. From a good man.
Iddaru mañchivāru	Irā jomānō bandagh	. 123. Two good men.
Mañchivāru	Jomānaṅga bandaghāk	. 124. Good men.
Mañchivāri	Jomānaṅgā þandaghātā	. 125. Of good men.
Mañchivāri-ki	Jomānangā bandaghāte	. 126. To good men.
Mañchivāri-daggiri-nuñchi	Jomānangā bandaghātiān	. 127. From good men.
Mañchidi	Jomānō za'īfa-as .	. 128. A good woman.
Chedda chinnavādu	Gandaō mār-as .	. 129. A bad boy.
Mañchi strilu	Jomānangā zatīfag <u>h</u> āk	. 130. Good women.
Chedda ādapilla	Gandaō masiṛ-as	. 131. A bad girl.
Mañchidi	Jomān, sharr	. 132. Good.
Dāni kaṇṭe mañchidi	Jomāntir, shartir	133. Better.

134. Best Avargaļilum nalla Ella kitā chhald		Eng	lish.			Tamil (Poena).	Korvī (Belgaur	n).	Kaikāḍī	(Sholap	ur).	
136. Higher Avanukku uyarnda Kitā etr	134.	Best			٧.	Avargaļilum nalla		Ellā kitā chhalū					
137. Highest Avargalilum uyarnda Ellä kitä etr	135.	High		•,		Uyarnda .		Etr		Vāsk .			
138. A horse Kudirei Ondê kudri Ghand khudri 139. A mare Pen kudirei Ondê pat-kudri Phattad khudri 140. Horses Kudireigal Kudryâng Khudryâng 141. Mares Pen kudireigal Pat kudryâng Phat khudryâng 142. A bull Mâdu Ondê mâd Mât 143. A cow Paéu Ondê mâd Mât 144. Bulls Mâdugal Madaîng Mâtgâ 145. Cows Paśukkal Âklâng Âkalgā 146. A dog Nây Ondê khavâl Năi 147. A bitch Pen nây Ondê pat-khavâl Năi 148. Dogs Nôygal Khavâlnâg Nâyang 149. Bitches Pen nâygal Pat khavâlanêg Nâyanîg 149. Bitches Pen nâygal Pat khavâlanêg Nâyanîg 150. A he goat Oru âdu Ondê pat-khavâlanêg Ñaţaî 151. A female goat Oru ân mân Ondê pat-chigari Ātgã 152. Goats Ādugal Ādañag Ātgã	136.	Higher				Avanukku uyarnda		Kitā etr					
139. A mare Pep kudirei Oudé paţ-kudri Phaţtad khudr! 140. Horses Kudireigal Kudryāṅg Khudryāṅg 141. Mares Pep kudireigal Paṭ kudryāṅg Phaṭ khudryāṅg 142. A bull Māḍu Ouḍē māḍ Māṭ 143. A cow Paśu Ouḍē akl Åkal 144. Bulls Māḍugal Māḍāṅg Māṭgā 145. Cows Paśakkal Āklaṅg Ākulgā 146. A dog Nāy Ouḍē khavāl Nāi 147. A bitch Peu nāy Ouḍē paṭ-khavāl Nāi 148. Dogs Nōygal Khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 149. Bitches Peu nāygal Paṭ khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 150. A he goat Oru āḍu Ouḍē pāṭ-āḍa Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru peu āḍu Ouḍē paṭ-āḍa Āṭ 152. Goats Āḍŋgal Āḍāṅg Āṭgā 153. A male deer Oru peu mān Ouḍē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre 154. A female deer Oru peu mān Ouḍē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre <td>137.</td> <td>Highest</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>÷</td> <td>Avargaļilum uyarn</td> <td>da</td> <td>Ellā kitā etr</td> <td>. :</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td>	137.	Highest			÷	Avargaļilum uyarn	da	Ellā kitā etr	. :				
140. Horses Kudireigal Kudryāṅg Khudryāṅg 141. Mares Pen kudireigal Pat kudryāṅg Phat khudryāṅg 142. A bull Māḍu Oṇḍē māḍ Māṭ 143. A cow Paśu Oṇḍē māḍ Akal 144. Bulls Mādugal Māḍaṅg Mātgā 145. Cows Paśukkal Aklaṅg Ākulgā 146. A dog Nāy Oṇḍē khavāl Nāi 147. A bitch Pen nāy Oṇḍē khavāl Nāi 148. Dogs Nāygal Khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 149. Bitches Pen nāygal Paṭ khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 150. A he goat Oru āḍu Oṇḍē hōta Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru pen āḍu Oṇḍē paṭ-āḍa Āṭ 152. Goats Āḍŋaal Āḍāṅg Āṭañ 153. A male deer Oru pen mān Oṇḍē paṭ-dhigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Oḥḍē paṭ-dhigari Phaṭ-māre 156. I am Nāŋ irukkiṇāy Nī igarā Nī igarā Nī igarā <tr< td=""><td>138.</td><td>A horse</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>Kudirei</td><td></td><td>Oṇḍē kudri .</td><td></td><td>Ghaṇḍ khud</td><td>rī</td><td></td><td></td></tr<>	138.	A horse				Kudirei		Oṇḍē kudri .		Ghaṇḍ khud	rī		
141. Mares Pen kudireigal Pat kudryâng Phat khudryâng 142. A bull Mādu Opdē mād Māt 143. A cow Paśu Opdē akl Ākal 144. Bulls Mādugal Madang Mātgā 145. Cows Paśukkal Āklāng Ākalgā 146. A dog Nāy Opdē kbavāl Nāi 147. A bitch Pen nāy Opdē paṭ-khavāl Nāi 148. Dogs Nāygal Khavālang Nāyaāg 149. Bitches Pen nāygal Paṭ khavālang Nāyaāg 150. A he goat Oru ādu Opdē paṭ-ada Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru pen ādu Opdē paṭ-ada Āṭ 152. Goats Āḍugal Āḍāng Āṭgā 153. A male deer Oru āp mān Opdē yaļļi chigari Gaṇḍāļ 154. A female deer Oru pen mān Opdē yaļļi chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāng Marri 156. I am Nāŋ irukkiṣēŋ Nā igarē Nā igarē 157. Thou art Ni irukkiṣāŋ Ni igarā Ni igarā	139.	A mare				Peņ kudirei .		Oṇḍē paṭ-kudri		Phattad khu	drī		
142. A bull Māḍu Oṇḍē māḍ Māṭ 143. A cow Paśu Oṇḍē akļ Ākaļ 144. Bulls Māḍugal Māḍaṅg Māṭgā 145. Cows Paśukkal Ākļāṅg Ākalgā 146. A dog Nāy Oṇḍē khavāl Nāi 147. A bitch Peṇ nāy Oṇḍē paṭ-khavāl Nāi 148. Dogs Nāygal Khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 149. Bitches Peṇ nāygal Paṭ khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 150. A he goat Oru āḍu Oṇḍē hỗta Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru aṇ māq Oṇḍē paṭ-aḍa Āṭ 152. Goats Āḍugal Āḍāṅg Āṭgā 153. A male deer Oru aṇ māq Oṇḍē paṭ-chigari Gaṇḍāl 154. A female deer Oru aṇ māq Oṇḍē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāṅg Marrī 156. I am Nāŋ irukkirāŋ Nā igarē Nā igarī 157. Thou art Nī irukkirāŋ Nī igarā Nīn igarā 158. He is Avan irukkirāŋ Nāga igaro Nāṇg igar	140.	Horses				Kudireigal .		Kudryāng .		Khudryāng			
143. A cow . Paśu . Ondē ākļ . Åkaļ 144. Bulls . Mādugaļ . Mādang . Mātgā 145. Cows . Paśukkaļ . Åkļāng . Åkalgā 146. A dog . Nāy . Ondē kbavāl . Nāi 147. A bitch . Peņ nāy . Ondē paḍ-khavāl . Nāi 148. Dogs . Nāygaļ . Khavālang . Nāyang 149. Bitches . Pen nāygaļ . Paṭ khavālang . Nāyang 150. A he goat . Oru ādu . Ondē hōta . Āṭ 151. A female goat . Oru aḍu . Ondē paṭ-āḍa . Āṭ 152. Goats . Ādugaļ . Ādāng . Ātgā 153. A male deer . Oru ān mān . Ondē paṭ-chigari . Gaṇḍāl 154. A female deer . Oru pen mān . Ondē paṭ-chigari . Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer . Mān . Chigaryāng . Marrī 156. I am . Nāŋ irukkigān . Nā igarā . Nā igarā 157. Thou art . Nī irukkigān . Na igarā . Nīn igarā 158. He is . Avan irukkigān . Nāga igarō . Nāng igar	141.	Mares		•		Pen kudireigaļ		Pat kudryāng .		Phat khudry	āńg		
144. Bulls Mādugaļ Mādāṅg Mātgā 145. Cows Paśukkaļ Āklāṅg Ākalgā 146. A dog Nāy Oṇḍē khavāl Nāi 147. A bitch Peṇ nāy Oṇḍē paṭ-khavāl Nāi 148. Dogs Nāygaļ Khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 149. Bitches Peṇ nāygaļ Paṭ khavālaṅg Nāyaṅg 150. A he goat Oru āḍu Oṇḍē hôta Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru peṇ aḍu Oṇḍē paṭ-āḍa Āṭ 152. Goats Āḍugaļ Āḍāṅg Ātgā 153. A male deer Oru āṇ māṇ Oṇḍē yalļi chigari Gaṇḍā 154. A female deer Oru peṇ mān Oṇḍē yalṭi chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāṅg Marrī 156. I am Nāṇ irukkiṇāṇ Nā igarē Nā igarī 157. Thou art Nī irukkiṇāŋ Nī igarā Nī igarā 158. He is Avaŋ irukkiṇāŋ Ava igarū Nāŋg igar	142.	A bull				Māḍu		Oņģē māḍ .		Māţ .	•	•	·
145. Cows . Paśukkał . Åkļāng . Äkalgā 146. A dog . Nāy . Ondē khavāl . Nāi 147. A bitch . Pen nāy . Ondē pat-khavāl . Nāi 148. Dogs . Nāygaļ . Khavālang . Nāyang 149. Bitches . Pen nāygaļ . Paṭ khavālang . Nāyang 150. A he goat . Oru āḍu . Ondē hōta . Āṭ 151. A female goat . Oru pen āḍu . Ondē paṭ-āḍa . Āṭ 152. Goats . Āḍugaļ . Āḍāng . Āṭgā 153. A male deer . Oru āṇ mān . Ondē paṭ-chigari . Gaṇḍāļ 154. A female deer . Oru peṇ mān . Ondē paṭ-chigari . Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer . Mān . Chigaryāng . Marrī 156. I am . Nāŋ irukkirān . Nā igarā . Nīn igarā 157. Thou art . Nī irukkirān . Nī igarā . Nīn igarā 159. We are . Nāngaļ irukkirām . Nāga igarō . Nāng igar	43.	A cow	•	•		Paśu		Oņģē ākļ .		Ākaļ .			
146. A dog Nāy Ondē khavāl Nāi 147. A bitch Pen nāy Ondē paṭ-khavāl Nāi 148. Dogs Nāygal Khavālang Nāyang 149. Bitches Pen nāygal Paṭ khavālang Nāyang 150. A he goat Oru āḍu Ondē hôta Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru pen āḍu Ondē paṭ-āḍa Āṭ 152. Goats Āḍugal Āḍāng Āṭgā 153. A male deer Oru āṇ mān Ondē yalļi chigari Gaṇḍāļ 154. A female deer Oru pen mān Ondē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāng Marrī 156. I am Nāṇ irukkirēn Nā igarē Nā igarī 157. Thou art Nī irukkirān Nī igarā Nī igarā 158. He is Avaṇ irukkirān Ava igarā Au igarū 159. We are Nāngal irukkirām Nāga igarō Nāng igar	44.	Bulls	•			Māḍugaļ .		Māḍāṅg		Māṭgā .			
147. A bitch Pen nāy Ondē paṭ-khavāl Nāi 148. Dogs Nāygal Khavālang Nāyang 149. Bitches Pen nāygal Paṭ khavālang Nāyang 150. A he goat Oru ādu Ondē hôta Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru pen ādu Ondē paṭ-āda Āṭ 152. Goats Ādugal Ādāng Āṭgā 153. A male deer Oru ān mān Ondē yalļi chigari Gandāl 154. A female deer Oru pen mān Ondē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāng Marrī 156. I am Nā irukkirān Nā igarā Nī igarā 157. Thou art Nī irukkirān Nī igarā Nīn igarā 159. We are Nāngal irukkirām Nāga igarō Nāng igar	45.	Cows	•	•		Paśukkal .		Ākļāṅg		Ākaļgā .	*		
148. Dogs Nāygaļ Khavālang Nāyang 149. Bitches Pen nāygaļ Paṭ khavālang Nāyang 150. A he goat Oru āḍu Oṇḍē hỗta Āṭ 151. A female goat Oru pen āḍu Oṇḍē paṭ-āḍa Āṭ 152. Goats Āḍugaļ Āḍāng Āṭgā 153. A male deer Oru āṇ mān Oṇḍē yaļļi chigari Gaṇḍāļ 154. A female deer Oru peṇ mān Oṇḍē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāng Marrī 156. I am Nāṇ irukkiṇēņ Nā igarē Nā igarī 157. Thou art Nī irukkiṇāy Nī igarā Nīn igarā 158. He is Avaṇ irukkiṇān Ava igarū Au igarū 159. We are Nāṅgal irukkiṇōm Nāga igarō Nāṅg igar	46.	A dog				Nāy		Oņģē khavāl .		Nāi .	٠		
149. Bitches . Pen nāygaļ . Paṭ khavālang . Nāyang 150. A he goat . Oru āḍu . Oṇḍē hỗta . Āṭ 151. A female goat . Oru pen āḍu . Oṇḍē paṭ-āḍa . Āṭ 152. Goats . Āḍugaļ . Āḍāng . Āṭgā 153. A male deer . Oru āṇ māṇ . Oṇḍē yalļi chigari . Gaṇḍāļ 154. A female deer . Oru peṇ mān . Oṇḍē paṭ-chigari . Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer . Mān . Chigaryāng . Marrī 156. I am . Nāṇ irukkiṇēṇ . Nā igarē . Nā igarī 157. Thou art . Nǐ irukkiṇāy . Nī igarā . Nīn igarā 158. He is . Avan irukkiṇān . Ava igarū . Au igarū 159. We are . Nāṅgal irukkiṇōm . Nāga igarō . Nāng igar	47.	A bitch			•	Peṇ nāy .		Oṇḍē paṭ-khavāl		Nāi .	٠		
150. A he goat . Oru āḍu . Oṇḍē hỗta . Āṭ	48.	\mathbf{Dogs}				Naygal		Khavālang .		Nāyang .	•		
151. A female goat Oru pen ādu Ondē paţ-āda Āţ 152. Goats Ādugaļ Ādang Ātgā 153. A male deer Oru ān mān Ondē yalļi chigari Gandāļ 154. A female deer Oru pen mān Ondē paţ-chigari Phaţ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāng Marrī 156. I am Nān irukkirēn Nā igarē Nā igarī 157. Thou art Nī irukkirāy Nī igarā Nīu igarā 158. He is Avan irukkirān Ava igarū Au igarū 159. We are Nāngal irukkirām Nāga igarō Nāng igar	49.	Bitches	٠	٠		Peṇ nāygaļ .		Paţ khavālang		Nāyang .	•		
152. Goats Âḍugaļ Āḍāṅg Âḍāṅg Âṭgā 153. A male deer Oru āṇ māṇ Oṇḍē yalli chigari Gaṇḍāl 154. A female deer Oru peṇ mān Oṇḍē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāṅg Marrī 156. I am Nāṇ irukkiṇēṇ Nā igarē Nā igarī 157. Thou art Nī irukkiṇāy Nī igarā Nīn igarā 158. He is Avaṇ irukkiṇāṇ Ava igarū Au igarū 159. We are Nāṅgal irukkiṇōm Nāga igarō Nāṅg igar	50.	A he goat				Oru āḍu .		Oṇḍē hỗta .		Āţ.			
153. A male deer Oru āṇ māṇ Oṇḍē yalļi chigari Gaṇḍāļ 154. A female deer Oru peṇ mān Oṇḍē paṭ-chigari Phaṭ-māre 155. Deer Mān Chigaryāṅg Marrī 156. I am Nāṇ irukkiṇēṇ Nā igarē Nā igarī 157. Thou art Nī irukkiṇāy Nī igarā Nīu igarā 158. He is Avaṇ irukkiṇāṇ Ava igarū Au igarū 159. We are Nāṅgal irukkiṇōm Nāga igarō Nāṅg igar	51.	A female	goat			Oru peņ āḍu .		Oṇḍē paṭ-āḍa .		Āţ.			
154. A female deer Oru pen mān Ondē paţ-chigari Phaṭ-māre	52. (Goats	•			Âḍugaļ		Āḍāṅg		Āṭgā .			
155. Deer	53. 1	A male de	er	•		Oru āṇ māṇ .		Oṇḍē yaḷḷi chigari		Gaņḍāļ .			
156. I am . Nāṇ irukkiṇēṇ . Nā igarē . Nā igarī 157. Thou art . . Nī irukkiṇāy . . Nī igarā . . Nīn igarā . 158. He is 	54. A	A female	deer			Oru peņ mān .		Oṇḍē paṭ-chigari		Phaț-māre			
157. Thou art	55. I	Deer			•	Mān		Chigaryāng .	•	Marrī .			
158. He is Avan irukkinān	56. I	am				Nāṇ irukkiṛēṇ		Nå igarë .		Nā igarī	•		
159. We are Nangal irukkirom	57. 7	Thou art	•			Ni irukki rāy .		Nī igarā .		Nīn igarā			
Nang Igar			•			Avan irukkirān	٠.	Ava igarū .		Au igarū			
160. You are Ningal irukkiviyotal Ninga imana.						Nāngal irukkirōm		Nāga igarō ,		Nāṅg igar			
Ning igrang	60. 3	You are	•	•	-	Ningaļ irukkirīrgaļ		Niga igarāga		Nîng igrang			

Malayāļam.		Kanarese (Belgaum).	Kuru <u>kh</u> (Palamau).
Egravum nalladu		Ellakků mělu	Hurmintī bēs
Uyara		Ettara	Mechhā
Adhikam uyara		Hechchu ettara	Ādintī mechhā
Erravum uyara		Ellakkū ettara	Hurmintī mechhā
Āņ kudira .		Ondu kudure	Oṇṭā ghōṭō
Pen kudira .	÷	Ondu heṇṇu kudure.	Oņţā ghuŗī
Ān kudiragaļ .		Kuduregaļu	Ghōrō guṭhī
Pen kudiragal .		Heṇṇu kuduregaļu	Ghurī guṭhī
Kāļa		Ondu hōri (or ettu)	Oņţā sāṇḍh
Paśu		Ondu ākaļu	Oņţā gāy
Kāļagaļ		Hōrigaļu	Sāṇḍh guṭhĩ
Paśukkal .		Ākaļugaļu	Gây guțhī
Nāy		Ondu nāyi	Oņţā allā
Pațți		Ondu heṇṇu nāyi	Oņţā kuţi allā
Nāykkaļ .		Nāyigaļu	Alla guthī
Pattigal		Heṇṇu nāyigaļu	Kuți allă guțhī
Veļļāda		Ondu hōlū	Oņţā bokā (bokrā ēŗā)
Peņ veļļāda .		Ondu āḍu or mēke	Oņţā (burhi) ērā
Āḍugaļ		Āḍugaļu or mēkegaļu .	Ēŗā-guṭhī
Āņ mān		Ondu gaṇḍu chigari	Oņţā māk
Pen mān .		Ondu heṇṇu chigari	Onță madi māk
Māngaļ .		Chigarigalu	Māk guṭhī
Ñān āgunnu .		Nānu iddēne	En ra'den
Nī āgunnu .	,	Ninu iddi	Nin ra'dai
Avan āgunnu .		Avanu iddāne	Ās ra'das
Nannaļ āgunnu		Nāva iddēve	Em ra'dam
Ninnal agunnu		Nivu iddiri	Nim ra'dar
			D. H. COR

Malto.			Kui (Khondmals	s).	Gōṇḍ	i (Mand	ls).	
Goțente ēru <u>th</u>			Dēhā nēgi .		Sabtāl bēs			-
Mechge			Pēngā		űñchō .			
Ado mechge .		٠.	·		Nakkā ūñc	hō .		
Goțente mechge			Dēhā dēngā .		Sabtāl ūñel	nō.		
Maqond goro <u>th</u>			Ro porā gōrā .		Kōrā .			
Maqond dadi goro <u>th</u>			Ro tāli gōrā .	·	Ghuriyā			
Goro gahṇḍi <u>th</u>			Porā görāngā .		Kōrān .			
Padi goro gahņdi <u>th</u>			Tāli görāngā		Ghuriyān			
Saṇḍe <u>th</u> .			Ro soņģo koģi .		Kondā .			
Maqond ōyu <u>th</u>			Ro tāli koḍi .		Ţāli .		٠	
Saṇḍe gahṇḍi <u>th</u>			Gulē saņķo koģingā		Kondāń .			
Ōyu gahṇḍi <u>th</u>			Gulē tāli koḍiṅgā	٠	Ţālīń .			
Maqond ale <u>th</u> .			Ro porā nākuri	·	Nai .	. 15		
Maqond dadi ale <u>th</u>			Ro tāli nākuri .	•	Siţţī .			-
Al gahņdi <u>th</u> .			Gulē poŗā nākuriskā		Naik .			
Al ḍaḍi gahṇḍi <u>th</u>			Gulē tāli nākuriskā		Sitting .			-
Maqond bokṛa ēṛe <u>th</u>			Ro porā oḍā .		Bukrāl .			
Ēŗ ḍaḍi <u>th</u> .			Ro tāli oḍā .		Yēṭī .			
Ēr gahņdi <u>th</u>			Gulē oḍāṅgā .		Yēṭīṅg .			-
Bokṛa chañju <u>th</u>			Ro porā sitāli .		Harnā .			
Рафі chañju <u>th</u>			Ro tāli sitāli .		Harnī			
Chañju <u>th</u> .			Sitāli .		Harank .		,	
Ēn dōkin.			Ānu māĭ .	•	Nannā āndō	nā .		
Nîn dōkne .			Inu māñji .		Immā āndōr	u .		
Āh dōkih	•		Ēbāñju mānēñju		Ōr āndōr			
Nām dōkit, ēm dōkim			Amu mānāmu		Mammat än	dōm		
Nim dokner .	•		Iru māñjēru .		Immär ändi	ŗ ·		

Telugu.		1	Brāhūž (Kalat).	English.
Anniți-mīda mañchi	di		Kull-ån jomän .	 134. Best.
Yettu			Burz	 135. High.
Dāni kaņțe yettu			Burztir	 136. Higher.
Anniți-mīda yettu			Kullān burz .	 . 137. Highest.
Oka moga gurramu			Nariān	 . 138. A horse.
Oka āḍa gurramu			Mādiān	 . 139. A mare.
Moga-gurramu-lu			Nariänk	. 140. Horses.
Āḍa gurramu-lu			Mādiānk	. 141. Mares.
Oka yeddu .	•	-	Kharās	. 142. A bull.
Oka ävu	•		Dagi	. 143. A cow.
Yedlu			<u>Kh</u> arāsk .	. 144. Bulls.
Āvulu			Pagīk	. 145. Cows.
Oka moga kukka	•		Kuchak	. 146. A dog.
Oka āḍa kukka			Miṇḍ	. 147. A bitch.
Moga kukka-lu			Kuchakāk .	. 148. Dogs.
Āḍa kukka-lu .	•	-	Miņdāk	. 149. Bitches.
Oka moga mēka			Mat	. 150. A he goat.
Oka āḍa mēka			Hēţ	. 151. A female goat.
Mēka-lu .			Hēţk	. 152. Goats.
Jinka			Nar-āsk	. 153. A male deer.
Irri ·			Mādah-āsk .	. 154. A female deer.
Jinka-lu .			Khazm	. 155. Deer.
Nēnu unnānu .			Ī arēţ, or uţ .	. 156. I am.
·Nīyu·unnāvu .			Nī arēs, or us .	. 157. Thou art.
Vādu unnādu .			Ō arē, or ē .	. 158. He is.
Mēmu unnāmu			Nan arēn, or un	. 159. We are.
Mīru unnāru .	٠٠		Num arērē	. 160. You are.

English.	Tamil (Poona).	Korvī (Belgaum).	Kaikāḍī (Sholapur).
161. They are	. Avarga lirukkirārga l	Avga igarāga	Āung igrāng
162. I was	Nān irundēn	Nā indē	Nā indī
163. Thou wast	Nī irundāy	Nī indā	Nī indā
164. He was	Avan irundān	Ava indū	Āu indū
165. We were	Nāṅgaļ irundōm	Nāga indō	Näng indu
166. You were	Ningal irundirgal	Nīga indāga	Ning indang
167. They were	. Avargal irundārgal	Avga indāga	Āung indāng
168. Be	. Iru	Āga	Āga
169. To be	Irukka	Āgark	Āgrād
170. Being	Irukkira	Āgat	
171. Having been .	Irandu	Āgi	Āgi
172. I may be	Nāṇ irukkalām	Nā āgaba	
173. I shall be .	Nāṇ iruppēṇ	Nā āgare	Nā ikarī
174. I should be	Nāṇ irukka-vēṇḍum	Nā āgarda	
175. Beat	Афі	Adi	Idd
176. To beat	Adikka	Adikīka	Idrād
177. Beating	Adikkiga	Ads-köt	Iḍḍi
178. Having beaten	Adittu	Adasa	Iddi
179. I beat	Nāṇ aḍikkirēṇ	Nā adikēri	Nā iḍḍākī
180. Thou beatest	Ni adikkiray	Nī adikērā	Nī iḍḍākā
181. He beats	Avan adikkiran	Ava adikērū	Āu iḍḍākū
182. We beat	Nāngaļ adikkiņēm	Nāga adikērē	Nāṅg iḍḍākū
183. You beat	Ningal adikkirirgal	Nîga adikêrā(ga)	Ning iḍḍākāṅg
184. They beat	Avargaļ aḍikkirargaļ .	Avga aḍikērā(ga)	Āuṅg iḍḍākāṅg
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Năn adittēn	Nā adise	Nā iḍnē
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	Nī adittāy	Nī adasā	Ni idnā
187. He beat (Past Tense) .	Avan adittān	Ама афаяй	Āu idnū

Malayāļam.		Kanarese (Belgaum).	Kuru <u>kh</u> (Palas	nau).	
Avar āgunnu		Avaru iddāre	Ār ra'nar .		
Nan äyi, or äy-irunnu (a so throughout).	nd	Nānu iddenu	Ēn ra'achkan .		
Ni āyi		Nīnu iddi	Nin ra'achkai .		
Avan āyi		Avanu iddanu	Ås ra'achas .		
Ñaṇṇaļ āyi		Nāvu iddevu	Ēm ra'achkam		
Ninnaļ āyi		Nīvu iddiri	Nīm ra'achkar .		
Avar āyi		Avaru iddaru	Ār ra'achar .		
Āguga		Āgu or iru	Ra'ā		
Āguga		Āguvadu or iruvadu .	Ra'nā		
Āgunna		Āgutta	Ra'ar-ki		
Āyi		Āgi	Ra'ar-kî		
		Nānu āga bahudu .	Ēn ra'ā ondan .	•	
Ñān āgum		Nānu āguvenu .	En ra'on .	•	
		Nānu āgatakkaddu .	Eṅgā ra'nā chāhī		
Adikkuga		Hode	Lau'ā		
Adikkuga, adippān .		Hodeyalikke	Lau'nā .		
Adikkunna		Hodeyutta	Lau'num .		
Adichchu		Hoḍedu	Lau'ar-ki .		
Ñān aḍikkunnu .		Nānu hoḍeyuttēne .	Ēn laudan .		
Nī aḍikkunnu		Nīnu hoḍeyuttī .	Nīn laudai .	v	
Avan aḍikkunnu .		Avanu hodeyuttāne .	Ās laudas .		
Ñańńaļ adikkunnu .		Nāvu hodeyuttēve .	Ēm laudam .		
Ninnaļ adikkunnu .		Nīvu hoḍeyuttīri .	Nîm laudar .		
Avar adikkunnu .		Avaru hodeyuttāre .	Ár launar .		
Ñān aḍichchu		Nānu hoḍedenu .	Ēn lauchkan .		
Ni adichchu		Nīnu hoḍedi	Nin lauchkai .		
Avan adichchu		Avanu hodedanu .	Ās lauchas .		

Malt	ю.			Kui;(Khondmals).		Göṇḍĩ (Mandla).	-
Åwer dökner		•	•	Ēbāru mānēru .			Örk ändurk	
En dokken		•		Ānu māsē .			Nannā mattonā	
Ņīn dokke	i.	•.		Inu māsi .			Immā mattonī.	
Āh ḍokyah				Ēbāñju māsēñju			Ör mattör	
Nām dokket, ē	m dol	kem		Āmu māsēmu .			Mammāt mattoram .	
Nim dokker				Iru māsēru .			Immār mattorīț	
Āwer ḍokyar				Ēbāru māsēru .			Örk mattörk	
Mena .				Mānmu			Åm	
Dokno	٠.			Mānbātāṅgi .			Āyānā	
Dokne .				Mānāri			Āsī	
Pokke .				Ājā mānāri .			Āsī-kun	
Ēn ḍokin bano				Ānu ābā-muĭ .	•		Nannā āyākā	
Ēn doken				Ānu āĭ		٠	Nannā āyikā	
Ēn dokner	•			Anu ājā dui	•		Nannā āsī mattēnā .	
Baja .				Sāhāmu, uhumu, ko	smu		Jim	
Bajoti .	•			Sāhāppātingā .			Jiyānā	
Baje <u>th</u> .				Sāhāppā .			Jītāl	
Bajke .				Sābāppā mānāri			Jīsi-kun	
Ēn bajin				Ānu sāhĭ .			Nannā jiyēnā	-
Nin bajne				Inu sāhādi .			Immā jiyēnī	
Āh bajih				Ēbāñju sāhānēñju			Ōr jiyēr	
Nām bajit, ēm	bajim			Āmu sāhānāmu			Mammāt jiyēram .	\cdot
Nîm bajner				Iru sāhādēru .			Immār jiyērīt	
Ār bajner				Ēbāru sāhānēra			Örk jiyērk	
En bajken				Ānu uhā-(mā)sē			(Nannā jitān) .	
Nin bajke				Inu uhā-māsi			(Immā jītī)	
Āh bajyah				Ēbāñju uhā-māsēñju			(Ōr jītur)	
D F679			_!			_!		1

Telugu.	Brāhūī ((Kalat)			English.
Vāru unnāru, avi unnavi .	Ŏfk arēr			-	161. They are.
Nēnu nņķini	Īassuţ.				162. I was.
Nivu untivi	Nī assus				163. Thou wast.
Vādu nņdenu	Ōas .				164. He was.
Mēmu uņţimi	Nan assun				165. We were.
Miru unțiri	Num assurē				166. You were.
Vāru uņģiri, or uņģenu .	Ōfk assur		•		167. They were.
Uņģu	Marak .				168. Be.
Uņduţa	Maning .				169. To be.
Մր լ ա	Marisa-aţ	·			170. Being.
Մրվն	Marōk .				171. Having been.
Nēnu uņdava <u>tsts</u> unu	Î marēv .	•			172. I may be.
Nēnu uņṭānu	Ī marōţ .	•			173. I shall be.
Nēnu uņḍa-valenu	Ī masuṭa				174. I should be.
Koţţu	Khalth .				175. Beat.
Koţţuţa	Khalling.				176. To beat.
Koţţutu	Khalisa-aț		•		177. Beating.
Koţţi					178. Having beatea.
Nēnu koţţutānu	Ī khaliva.				179. I beat.
Nīvu koṭṭutāvu	Nī <u>kh</u> alesa				180. Thou beatest.
Vādu koṭṭutādu	Ō <u>kh</u> alek				181. He beats.
Memu kottutāmu	Nan <u>kh</u> alena				182. We beat.
Mīru koṭṭutāru	Num <u>kh</u> alerē				183. You beat.
Vāru koţţutāru • •	Ōfk khalera				184. They beat.
Nēnu kottinānu, or kottitini	Ī <u>kh</u> alkuţ				185. I beat (Past Tense).
Nīvu koţţināvu, or koţţitiv	Nī <u>kh</u> alkus				186. Thon beatest (Past Tense).
Vādu koţţinādu, or koţţenu	Ő khalk .				187. He beat (Past Tense).

English.	Tamil (Poona).	Korvī (Belgaum).	Kaikādī (Sholapur).
188. We beat (Past Tense)	Nängal adittom	Nāga adasō	Nang idna
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Ningal adittirgal	Nīga adasāga	Ning idnang
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Avargal adittārgal	Avga adasāga	Āung idnāng
191. I am beating	Nān adittu-koņdirukkizēn .	Nā adisikoņd igarā	Nā iḍḍātiri
192. I was beating	Nān adittu-koņd-irundēn .	Nā adisīkoņd indē	Nā iḍḍāndi
193. I had beaten	Nān adittu irundēn	Nā adisindi	Nā iddindi
194. I may beat	Nāṇ aḍikkalām	Nā adība	
195. I shall beat	Nāṇ aḍippēṇ	Nā adikirē	Nā iḍrī (or aḍa-kiri, etc.) .
196. Thou wilt beat	Nī adippāy	Nī adikirā	Nī idrā
197. He will beat	Avan adippān	Ãva aḍikirā	Āu iḍrō
198. We shall beat	Nāngal adippēm	Nāga adikirō	Năng idrō
199. You will beat	Ningal adippirgal	Nīga adikirāga	Ning idrang
200. They will beat	Avargal adippārgal	Avga adikirāga	Āung idrāng
201. I should beat	Nāṇ aḍikka-vēṇḍum	Nā adikirda	
202. I am beaten	Adikkappadugirēn	Nā adapis-koņda igarē .	
203. I was beaten	Adikkappaţţēn	Nā aḍapis-koṇḍa indē .	
204. I shall be beaten .	Adikkappaduvēn	Nā adapisangārē	
205. I go	Nān pēgirēn	Nā hōgārē	Nā hōgāki
206. Thou goest	Nī pōgigāy	Ni hōgāri	Ni hōgākā
207. He goest	Ауап родікап	Äva högärü	Āu hōgākū
208. We go	Nāngal pēgizēm	Nāga hōgārō	Nāṅg hōgākū
209. You go	Ningal pogirirgal	Nīga hōgārā(ga)	Ning hōgākāṅg
210. They go	Avargal pögirárgal	Avga hōgārā(ga)	Ānng hōgākāng
11. I went	Năn pônên	Nā hōnē	Nā hōni
212. Thou wentest	Nī рōṇāy	Nī hōnā	Nī hōnā
213. He went	Avan pōnān	Ãуа hōnū	Āu hōnū
214. We went	Nāṅgaļ pōṇōm	Nāga hōnō	Nāṅg hōnū

Malayāļam.	Kanarese (Belgaum).	Kuru <u>kh</u> (Palamau).
Ñannal adichchu	Nāvu hoḍedevu	Ēm lauchkam
Ninnal adichchu	Nīvu hoḍediri	Nim lauchkar
Avar adichchu	Avaru hoḍedaru	Ār lauchar
Ñān aḍikkunnuṇḍu .	Nānu hodeyuttidēne.	Ēn lau'ā-lagdan
Ñān aḍikkug-āy-irunnu .	Nānu hoḍeyuttiddenu .	Ēn lau'ā-lakkan
Ñān adichchirunnu .	Nānu hoḍediddenu	Ēn lauchkan (bē'edan)
	Nānu hoḍeya bahudu .	Ēn lau'ā ondan .
Ñān aḍikkum	Nānu hoḍeyuvenu	Ēn lau'on
Nī adikkum	Nīnu hoḍeyuvi	Nim lau'oe
Avan adikkum	Avanu hoḍeyuvanu	Ās lau'ōs
Ñannal adikkum	Nāvu hodeyuvevu	Ēm lau'om
Ninnal adikkum	Nīvu hoḍeyuviri	Nim lau'or
Avar adikkum	Avaru hodeyuvaru	Ār lau'ōr.
	Nānu hoḍeyatakkaddu .	Engā lau'nā chāhī
Nān adikkappedunnu	Nānu hoḍesikoṇḍiddēne .	Ēn laurdan
Ñān adikka-ppeṭṭu .	Nānu hoḍesikoṇḍenu	En laurkan ra'achkan
Ñān aḍikkappeḍum .	Nānu hoḍesikoļļuvenu .	En lauro'on
Ñān pōgunnu	Nanu höguttene	Ēn kādan
Nī pōgunnu	Ninu hōguttī	Nîn kādai
Avan põgunnu.	Avanu hōguttāne	Ās kādas
Ñaṅṅaļ pōgunnu .	Nāvu hōguttēve	Ēm kādam
Ninnal pōgunnu .	Nīvu hōguttīri	Nīm kādar
Avar pogunnu.	Avaru höguttäre	År känar
Ñān pōyi	Nānu hōdenu	Ēn kērkan
Nī pōyi	Nīnu hōdi	Nîn kêrkai
Avan pōyi	Avanu hōdanu	Ās kēras
Ñannal pōyi	Nāvu hodevu	Ēm kērkam
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Malto.		Kui (Khondmals).		Göṇḍī (Mandla).
Nām bajket, ēm bajke	n .	Āmu uhā-(mā)sāmu		(Mammāṭ jītōm)
Nîm bajker		Iru uhā-māsēru .		(Immāṭ jītīṛ)
Äwer bajyar		Ēbāru uhā-māsēru .		(Õrk jiturk)
En bajin		Ānu sāhāpi-māĭ .		Nannā jiyātōnā
En baje dokken .		Ānu sahāpi-māsē .		Nannā jīndān
Ēn bajē qachrken .		Ānu sāhā-māsē .		Nannā jīsī mattōnā
En bajenko		Ānu sāhāpā-muĭ .		Nannā jiyākā
En bajen)	ſ	Nannā jiyākā
Nin bajere				(Immā jiyākī)
Āh bajeh		As the present tense	j	(Ōr jiyānur)
Nām bajet, ēm bajem	٠	In the present tense	1	(Mammāţ jiyākōm)
Nim bajer		Ì		(Immāṭ jiyākiṭ)
Āwer bajer	-	J	l	(Ōrk jiyānurk)
Ēn bajen		Ānu sāhā-duĭ		Nannā jitān āyēnā
Ēn bajurin		Ānu sāhāpā-āi māĭ .		Nannā jīsī hattān
Ēn bajurken		Ānu sāhāpā āi māsē .		Nannā jīsī hañjī mattōnā .
Ên bajuren		Ānu sāhāpā-āi duĭ .		Nannā jīsī handākā .
Ēnēkin	-	Ānu sāi		Nannā handātōnā
Nin ēkne		Inu sāji	٠.	Immā handātōnī
Ãh ēkih		Ēbānju sānēnju .		Ōr handātōr
Nām ēkit, ēm ēkim .		Āmu sānāmu		(Mammāṭ handātōram) .
Nîm ëkner		Iru sāju, (or sānēru)		(Immāṭ handātōrīṭ)
Āwer ēkner	-	Ībāru sānēru		(Örk handātörk)
Ēn ekken		Anu sāsē		Nannā hattān
Nin ekke		Inu sāsi		Immā hattī
Ãh ekyah		Ēbāñju sāsēñju .		Or hattur
Nām ekket, ēm ekkem		Āmu sāsāmu		(Mammāt hattom)

Telugu.	Brāhūī (Kalat).	Euglish,
Mēmu koţţināmu, or kottitimi.	Nan khalkun .		188. We beat (Past Tense).
Mīru koţţināru, or koţţitiri	Num <u>kh</u> alkurē		189. You beat (Past Tense).
Vāru koţţināru, or koţţiri .	Ōfk <u>kh</u> alkur .		190. They beat (Past Tense).
Nēnu koţţutunnānu	Ī <u>kh</u> alling-ṭī uṭ		19I. I am beating.
Nēnu koţţutū unţini .	Ī khalling-ţi assut		192. I was beating.
Nēnu koţţi unţini	Ī khalkasut .		193. I had beaten.
Nēnu koṭṭava <u>tsts</u> unu .	Ī khalev .		194. I may beat.
Nēnu koţţutānu	Ī <u>kh</u> alōţ	٠.	195. I shall beat.
Nivu koṭṭutāvu	Nī <u>kh</u> alōs		196. Thou wilt beat.
Vādu kottutādu	Ō <u>kh</u> alōe		197. He will beat.
Mēmu koţţutāmu	Nan <u>kh</u> alōn .	٠.	198. We shall beat.
Miru koţţutāru	Num <u>kh</u> alōrē .		199. You will beat.
Vāru koṭṭutāru	Ōfk khalōr .		200. They will beat.
Nēnu koṭṭa-valasinadi .	Ī <u>kh</u> alkuṭa .		201. I should beat.
Nēnu koṭṭa-baḍutunu .	Ī <u>kh</u> allingiva .		202. I am beaten.
Nēnu koṭṭa-baḍinānu .	Ī khallingāț .		203. I was beaten.
Nēnu koţţa-badutānu .	Ī <u>kh</u> allingōṭ .		204. I shall be beaten.
Nēnu pōtānu	Ī kāva		205. I go.
Nivu pötävu . , .	Nī kāsa		206. Thou goest.
Vāḍu pōtāḍu	Ō kāek		207. He goes.
Mēmu pōtāmu	Nan kāna .		208. We go.
Mīru pōtāru	Num kārē .		209. You go.
Vāru pōtāru	Ōfk kāra .		210. They go.
Nēnu pōyinānu, or pōtini .	Ī hināţ		211. I went.
Nīvu pōyināvu or pōtivi .	Nī hinās		212. Thou wentest.
Vāḍu pōyināḍu, or pōyenu .	Õ hinā		213. He went.
Mēmū pōyināmu, or pōtimi	Nan hinān .		214. We went.

	English.	Tamil (Poona).	Korvī (Belgaum).	Kaikāḍī (Sholapur).
215	. You went	Ningal pönlrgal	Nīga hōnā(ga)	Nîng hōnāng
216	. They went	Avargal pönärgal	Avga hōnā(ga)	Āung hōnāng
217	. Go	Рб	Но	Нδ
218	. Going	Pogira	Hōgāne	
219	. Gone	Ponadu	Hona	
220	. What is your name? .	Un peyar enna?	Nina pēr yānda ?	Ninnād per mida? .
221	. How old is this horse?	Inda kudireikku vayad- enna?	Ī, kudirķi eddan vāţkāla?.	I khudryād vai yaddan?
222	How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Ividattilirundu Kashmiruk- ku evalavu düram?	Iñjyuṇḍe Kāsmīr eddan dūrā?	Ing-unḍā Kāśmīr yaddan
223.	How many sons are there in your father's house?	Un tagappanār vīṭṭil ettanei kumārargaļ irukkinārgaļ?	Ninnāvun ūḍuḷḷi eddan āmḷ- makka igarāga ?	Nina gāun ūṭaļi yadd gōgā igadgā?
224.	I have walked a long way to-day.	Inreiyadinam nān metta- dūram nadandēn.	Nā imān lāva dūr egi nada- davandire.	Nā iṇḍrū dhūr ēgi naḍdir
225.	The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	En māmanudeiya pillei avan śagödarikku kaliyānam	Avan tangasin nan kākāna maunk kuḍatida.	Nān kākan gōvank ā tāngśi puļi śendū.
226.	In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	seydirukkirārgaļ. Vittil veļļei-kkudireiyinud- eiya jini irukkiradu.	Ā ūḍulli vall kudrī paṇṇa igada.	Ā ūṭaļi vāļa khudry khōgir igada.
227.	Put the saddle upon his back.	Kudireiyin mudugil jīni pēdu.	Atar benn mēuk paņņ höḍa .	Å khudri-mini khögir höd
228.	I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Avan kumāranci nān metta adi-adittēn.	Nā ãvan maunk lāva adisire	Āuo gāunk nā lahāv <u>ts</u> āb iḍnē.
229.	He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Anda kunrin uchchiyil āḍumāḍugaļei avan mēyttu- kkoṇḍirukkirān.	Ava ā maḍḍī mēni māḍāṅg mēskoṇḍ-igarū.	Āu ṭekḍi-mini māḍgaļ kā kū.
230.	He is sitting on a horse under that tree.		Ā śēḍī dīka ãva kudrī mēnī ukkoṇḍ igarū.	Āu śēḍ-digē khudri-mi khvānkyākū.
231.	His brother is taller than his sister.	Avan śagodiran tan śagoda- riyei-pārkkilum vuyaram.	Ävan tembi ävan tangsikita etra igarū.	Āun tembi tān tāṅgśī ki vāsk igarū.
232.	The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Adan vilei iraņdarei rūpāy.	Atar kimmat raņļū ardi rupāyi.	Atau kimmat adī <u>ts</u> a chipp
233.	My father lives in that small house.	En tagappanār anda siru vīṭṭil vasikkirār.	āru.	Năn gâv ă chit ûtali niky kū.
234.	Give this rupee to him	Inda rūpāyei avanukku- kkodu.	Avank i rupāyi kudā .	Ā chippi āunk kud .
235.	Take those rupees from him.	Anda rūpāygaļei avan- idattil-irundu vāngikkoļ.	Āvantaṭuṇḍa ā rupāyi vākyō.	Ā chippi āun kiţṭuṇḍi adkyō.
236.	Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Avanci nangāy adittu kay- igugaļāl kattu.	Avan chhalti hanaga adasa kharagat khatt.	Āunk nallā iḍḍ ān khargu kaṭṭa.
237.	Draw water from the well.	Kiņaggil-irundu taņņir igu .	Bãyivuḷḷyuṇḍ tennī jyagg .	Bhāļ tenni šendís .
238.	Walk before me .	Enakku munnë nada .	Nann munni naḍā	Nān munni nadā .
239.	Whose boy comes behind you?	Un pinnāl yār piļļei varugir- ān?	Nina paraguņģ jār gunți varrāda?	Yatnād gōv nin phār varāk?
249.	From whom did you buy that?	Yār-iḍattil-irundu adei vāṅgiṇāy ?	Ni yār-taṭuṇḍa atan aḍt- kuṇḍā?	Ni ā yattan-kiṭṭuṇ koṇḍyā-tuṇḍā?
241.	From a shopkeeper of the village.	Anda kirāmattinudeiya kadeikkāranidamirundu.	Ā paļļi angdīkār-tatuņda .	Ā khedyānkī dukānvāļ kittuņdā.

Malayālam.	Kanarese (Belgaum).	Kuro <u>kh</u> (Palamau).
Ninnal pōyi	Nīvu hōdiri	Nîm kêrkar
Avar pōyi	Avaru hōdaru	Ār kērar
Ръ	Högu	Kalā
Pōgunna	Hōgutta	Kalar-ki
Pōyi	Hōd	Kēras
Ninge për yendu?	Ninna hesar ēnu ?	Ninhai ender nāme ?.
Ī kudirekka etra vayass- āyi ?	Ī kudurege eshṭu varusha?	Idī ghōrō ēkā kōhā ?
Ivideninna Kashmirilekku etra düram ?	Illinda Kāshmīra eshţu dūra?	Iyyantî Kasmir ēkā gechhā?
Ninge achchhange viţţil yetraān kuţţigal uṇḍu?	Nimma tandeya maneyalli eshtu gandu makkalu ?	Nimbas-gahi erpā-nū ēšdā <u>kh</u> addar ra'nar ?
Ñān iuna adhigam vari nadann-irikkunnu.	Nānu īhottu dūra dārī naḍediddēne.	Innā ēn dhēr gechhā ikkan
Enge ammämauge magan avange udappirannavale kalyänam karichch-irik-	Ātana tangiyannu nanna kakkan maganige koṭṭade.	Eń-kakas-gahi tańdas tańdii sańgē beñja-mañjas.
kunnu. Veļļa kudirayude jīni vīṭṭil uṇḍu.	Maneyalli biļē kudureya jīnu ade.	Erpā-nū pandrū ghōrō-gahi khugir ra'i.
Jiniye adinge puratta iduga.	Adara benna mēle jīnu hāku	Khugiran ädigahi med-nü uiyyä.
Ñān avanre magane vaļare aģichch-irikkunnu.	Nānu avana maganige bahaļa peṭṭu hākiddēne.	Ēn ās-gahi tandasin soṭṭā- tūlē khub lauchkan.
Kunninge mugaļil āḍumāḍu gaļe avan mēyikkunnuṇḍu.	Avanu guḍḍada tudī mēle danagaļannu mēyisuttid- dāne.	Ās partā maiyā mavesi <u>kh</u> āpā-lagdas.
A marattinge chumattil avan oru kudira pugatta irikkunnu.	Avanu ä gidada kelage kudureya mēle kūtiddāne.	Ās adi mann ki'iyā ghōrō- nū ukkas ra'das.
Avanre sahödaran avanre pennalekkal uyaramulla- van agunnu.	Avana tammanu avana tangiginta uppera iddane.	mechhā ra'das.
Adinge vila raņģara uruppiga	Adara bele eraḍūvare rūpāyi.	Adi-gahi dām du rupiya āṭh anā ra'i.
Enge achchhan ā chegiya vīṭṭil pārkkunnu.	Ā saṇṇa maneyalli nanna tandeyu iruttāne.	Embas adi sannī erpā-nū ra'das.
Ī uruppiga avannu koḍukka	Avanige ī rūpāyi koḍu .	Idi rupiyan ās-gē chi'ā
Ā uruppiyagaļe ayange adukkal ninna edukka.	Ā rupāyigaļannu avana kadeyinda isukoļļiri.	Abṛā rupiyan ās-gustē hō'ā.
Avane nallavannam adich- chu kayarugal kondu kettuga.	Avanannu channāgi badidu haggadinda kaṭṭu.	Asin khub tari lau'ā darā ep-tūlē hē'ā.
Kiņaggil-ninna veļļam kora.	Bāviyoļagina nīru śēdu .	Kūbintī amm natgā .
Enge munbil nadakka .	Nanna munde nadi	Enhai mundbhärē guchā
Ninge pinbil varunnadu ärude chekkan ägunnu?	Ninna hinde yāra huḍuganu baruttāne ?	khā-nū barā-lagdas ?
Adine nī aruḍe aḍukkal- ninna vilakkavāṅni ?	Adannu ninu yara kadinda kondukondi ?	Nēk gustē nīn adir <u>kh</u> ind- kai ?
Grāmattil oru vidiga- kāranil-ninna.	Ā ūra angadikārana kadey- inda.	Paddantā orot dokāndaras- gustē.

Malto. Kui (Khondmals).		Göndî (Mandla).
Nîm ekker	Iru sāsēru	(Immāṭ hattīṛ)
Äwer ekyar	Ēbāru sāsēru	(Örk hatturk)
Kāla	Sālmu	Han
ßke <u>th</u>	Sănări	Найјі
Ēk qachra, or ekyah	Sājā-mānāri	Hattur
Ning nami <u>th</u> indru <u>th</u> ? .	Mi pādā inārī ?	Nīvā battī parōl ānd ? .
$\mathbf{\tilde{I}}$ goro \underline{th} ēna dineki \underline{th} ? .	Iri gōrā ēsē bāsāritāri? .	Id körā bachālē barsātā ānd ?
Īṭinte Kashmire <u>th</u> ēna chūḍi <u>th</u> ?	Imbā-ṭākā Kāśmīr-tiṅgi ēsē durā ānē ?	Iggāharā Kaśmīr bachchōr lakk mandāl?
Nin abbo adano ēna jen maqer dokner?	Ni ābār-to ēsē mrikā mānēru?	Nīvēr dādānā rēte bachchēr mark mandānurk ?
Ine ën garhi geche paurk qatken.	Ānu nēñju dēhā pāhēri trējā-māĭ.	Nēṇḍ nannā vallē lakk tāktān.
Engki dada tangadeh ahiki bayin manchah.	Nāi koku mriēnju tāna āṅgini bihā ājā mānēnju.	Nāvōr kākānōr marrīnā marmī ōnā selārnā saṅg
$\begin{array}{ll} {\rm Adano} & {\rm jinpro} & {\rm goroki} \\ {\rm palange} \underline{th} & {\rm behi} \underline{th}. \end{array}$	Sukāli görātāri jini idulāiți mānē.	ātā. Rōte paṇḍrī kōrātā khōgur mandāl.
Ā <u>th</u> iki qōqeno palangen kīda.	Tānā kuiṭi jinu itāmu .	Khōgur tānā murchul parrō irrā.
Ên ahiki tangaden garen bajken.	Ānu tānā mriēni dēhā māḍā siā-māĭ.	Nanvā önör marrīn vallē mār jītān.
Ţōk meche āh ōyen charyih	Soru sēņdo ēbānju kodi kopāi-mānēnju.	Ōr kuṛōtā chōṭī parrō ḍhōr mē.
Āh man qolgorno goro mecha okih.	O mrāhnu-lāiṭi ēbāñju ro gōŗā kuiṭi koksā-mānēñju.	Örad marā sirī körā parro targītor.
Ahiki tangbāyo ahiki tang- bāyinte mechge.	Tānā dādā tānā āṅgi-bāhā- ṭākā ikē dēngā-gāṭāñju.	Önör bhāi önā selārtāl ḍbāṅgāl mandānur.
A <u>th</u> iki dame <u>th</u> arai ṭaka <u>th</u> .	Tānā krēu ri ṭākā odoli āi- mānē.	Tānā möl raṇḍ rupyāṅ ani āṭh ānā mandānuṅ.
Eṅg abba <u>th</u> ā joka aḍano ḍōkih.	Nāi ābā o kogāri idutā rāhi ānēnju (or lohonēnju).	Nāvōr dādāl ad chuḍur rōte mandātōr.
Ahik ī ṭakan chiya	Irā ṭākā ēbāniki simu .	Id rupyā ōnk sīm
Ahi bahanteā ṭakan ōya .	Tānā bāhā-ṭākā ārā ṭākā gulē omu.	Au rupyānun on-sē yēnā .
Ahin khūb baja ante gaṭat eya.	Tānāki nēgi bāngā māḍā simu, oṭē doro-ḍāi tohmu.	Tān khūb jīm ani nōnēta dōhā.
Kuinte ame mulga	Kubā-ṭākā kākēri bēlmu .	Kũvāta yēr nihā
En agdu kāla	Nāĭ muhutā tākāmu .	Nāvā munne tākā
Nekki tangadeh ning qoqen barih ?	Ni bētoți umbēri mriēñju bāi-mānēñju.	Bonā chhavvā nīvā pijjā vāyātā?
Nin a <u>th</u> e nëk bahano qeqqe?	Umbēri bāhā-ṭākā inu irā koditi?	Immā tān bōn-sē astī ?
Ort qepki dokani aweh bahano.	Nāju-tāri ro dōkāni lōku bāhā-ṭākā.	Nātēnōr banyāta

Telugu.	Brāhūī (Kalat).	English.
Mīru pōyināru, or pōtiri .	Num hinārē	215. You went.
Vāru pōyināru, or pōyiri .	Öfk hinär	216. They went.
Рб	Hin, hin-ak	217. Go.
Pōtu	Hinesa-aţ	218. Going.
Pōyina	Hinōk	219. Gone.
Mī pēr-ēmi?	Nā pin dēr ē ?	220. What is your name?
Ī gurramu yenta vaisu? .	Dā hullī aṭ sāl ē ?	221. How old is this horse?
Ikkadiki Kāśmīradēśamu yenta dūramu ?	Kashmir dākā a <u>khkh</u> a murr-ē ?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Mī taṇḍri iṇṭlō yendaru kumāḷlu ?	Nā bāyah-nā urā-ţī aṭ mār ō ?	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
Nēnu ippați dinamu bahu dūramu nadichi vachchi- nănu.	Ī ēnō bhallō pand-as kare- nuṭ.	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Mā mēnamāma koduku vāni akkanu vivāhamu chēsu- koni-unnādu.	Kanā illa-nā mār-nā barām ō-nā īŗ-tō massunē.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Intlō ā tella gurramu- yokka jiuu unnadi.	Pīhunā hullī-nā zēn urā-ţī ē	226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.
Dáni bennu-mīda jīnu kaṭṭu	Zēn kata	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Nēnu vāni koduku-nu <u>ts</u> ālā kotti-unuānu.	Ī ē-nā mār-e bhāz laṭ <u>kh</u> al- kunuṭ.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Vādu ā koņda-pai-mīda āvu-la-nu mēputunnādu.	E māl-e masha-nā kāṭumāe khavāfik.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Vādu ā cheṭṭu-kinda gur- ramu-mīda kūrustunuādu.	Hamē dara <u>kh</u> tanā kērag <u>h</u> ān ē hulliāc sovārē.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Vāni tammudu vāni akka- kaņte yettugā-y-unnādu.	Ē-nā ilum īŗāu-ta burz-ē .	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Dāni vela reņdunuara rūpāyi.	Ham-ē girā-nā bhā dō-nēm rūpai ē.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Nā taṇḍri ā chinna iṇṭlō uṇṭunnāḍu.	Kanā bāvah hamē chuna urā-ṭī tūlik.	233. My father lives in that small house.
Ī rūpāyi ataniki immu .	Da rupai-e ode ete	234. Give this rupee to him.
Ā rūpāyilu atani daggiri- nunchi tīsukoņģi.	Ē rūpaīt-e ōrān halṭh	235. Take those rupees from him.
Bāgā koṭṭi ataui tāḷla-tō kaṭṭumu.	Ōde sa <u>kh</u> t <u>kh</u> alṭh ō rēz-aṭ taft.	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Nūti-nunchi niļlu tīyu .	Dün-än dir kashshah .	237. Draw water from the well.
Nā mundaṭa naḍumu .	Kanā mōn-aṭ rai marak .	238. Walk before me.
Yevari pillavādu mī venuka vastunnādu ?	Dā dinnā mār ē ki nā rand- aṭ barek ?	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
Adi yevari daggiri-nuñchi kontiri?	Nī dāde dēr-ān halkus? .	240. From whom did you buy that?
Ī ūļlō vartakuni daggiri- nuñchi.	Shahr-nā ba <u>kh</u> ālaseān .	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.